
**An Identification and Analysis of Management Styles in Private
Social Work Organizations in the Greater Cape Town Area**

**A dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Masters
in Social Science in Social Work**

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September 1994

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Thirteen social work organizations participated in the study, with questionnaires being distributed to 237 managers and social workers through organization internal mail, conventional postage, and group administration depending on the preference of the organization. The overall response rate was 54.43%. The results revealed that the statistical 5/5 or opportunist management style is most prevalent within the social worker and management samples. This style is essentially a situational approach to managing and indicates that the manager's primary motivation is that of self-interest. In the social worker sample, another significant feature was the prominence of the 1/1 or impoverished management profile which characterises managers as being indifferent, apathetic and bureaucratic. An analysis of the profiles of both the opportunist and 1/1 managerial styles indicate that these managers employ autocratic practices toward workers. The predominance of the opportunist and the 1/1 styles confirm the results of the open-ended questionnaires which reveal autocratic management styles as being predominant. The element of autocratic control therefore emerges as a significant feature of management style within social work management.

The conclusions drawn from this study are that social work managers need to change their orientations which are motivated primarily by self-interest and characterised by autocratic practices, toward a 9/9 approach which encompasses the principles of teamwork, participation, change and innovation which are needed within a South African democratic and developmental context of practice.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

1. The efficient assistance of Productivity Development (Pty) Ltd for supplying the Management Styles Inventory and the Management Appraisal Survey instruments is greatly appreciated. In particular, sincere gratitude to Dr Francois Maritz for his advice, guidance and for supplying literature and video material to ease the analysis of management styles.
2. The financial assistance of the Centre for Science Development (HSRC, South Africa) towards this research is hereby acknowledged. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at, are those of the author and are not necessarily to be attributed to the Centre for Science Development.
3. The participation of the organizations which participated in the study is acknowledged, particularly Communicare, the Association for the Physically Disabled, Grassroots, the National Cancer Association, Nicro Mitchells Plain, Nicro Tygerberg, SANCA and SHAWCO without whose co-operation the study would not have been possible.
4. Thanks and appreciation to Dr Mandla Tshabalala, the university promoter of this study for his support and guidance, but above all his humour and vision.
5. A special thanks to my radical family, Abdul Mouti, Fawzia, Fadly and Thaaniyah whose commitment to social justice is always inspiring.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Social Work and Social Work Management in South Africa

An examination of social work management cannot be undertaken without discussing the social work profession itself, since the former is closely tied to the latter. Despite the relatively recent development of the social work management literature in comparison to the general social work literature, the practice of management in social work appears to have occurred from the early inception of the profession itself. This is noted by Slavin (1985:3) who states that administration is among the oldest of the social work methods since the first social work agency had to be managed or administered. It therefore seems that the development of the profession of social work had a direct impact on the nature of management practices employed in the field since the inception of both virtually coincide. In South Africa, this is especially significant since the forces of colonialism and political struggles which shaped the country's history affected not only the nature of social work (Patel 1992:34), but in turn also the nature of social work management. Even though democracy has been established in South Africa very recently in April 1994, it is the events and policies prior to this transition which have significantly and over a considerable period affected and determined the nature of social work practice and social work management.

McKendrick (1987:6-8) and McKendrick and Dudas (1987:186-187) provide a historical description of the initial efforts at social welfare in South Africa. These developments show an implementation and adherence to a residual model of social welfare (Wilensky and Lebeaux 1965) which were directed mainly at White settlers who suffered chiefly as a result of poor weather conditions and clashes with the indigenous people. The residual feature of social welfare services administered primarily through the churches was maintained throughout this early period and the ensuing years which were marked by White expansion, urbanization of predominantly the indigenous people owing to the loss of land, and the increase in poverty amongst both White and African people (Patel 1992:36). However, it is evident from this period of history that the social needs of predominantly White farmers and settlers were paramount as social welfare benefits were aimed at White consumers despite the severe degree of poverty experienced by the indigenous African population. This feature of racial bias appears to have persisted and profoundly impacted upon the nature of social work provision, particularly the formal professional practices which were established in the early decades of the twentieth century. McKendrick (1987:10-11) records the establishment of State programmes after 1910 to provide relief and employment especially for White people, culminating in a special focus on the poor white problem in 1932. The social work profession, according to McKendrick and Dudas (1987:12), was formally instituted in South Africa in the 1920s to intervene specifically in the poor white problem.

Owing to this historical origin, and possibly also owing to its infancy as a profession in South Africa, the professional social work sector virtually provided no opposition to

the socially unjust State policies. Midgley (1981:142) recognises the reluctance by social workers to engage in issues of social action and social justice: "While the [social work] profession has claimed on numerous occasions, to be concerned with social justice and social reform, it has been reluctant to take concrete action in support of this objective." Therefore, when the South African government adopted the policies of apartheid in 1948, social work as a profession, largely remained silent about the pervasive effects this would have in legally entrenching and increasing the racial disproportionate allocation of resources and power which were characteristic of the former years. The consequence of apartheid policies in terms of social welfare is noted by Patel (1988:6) who argues that whilst a residual system of welfare existed for the African population, the White minority enjoyed the benefits of a welfare state. Whilst Midgley (1981:108) states that the reinforcement of a residual approach to social welfare is a trend in developing countries owing to the inheritance of a colonial past, it would appear that in South Africa there was a deliberate disparity where White people were advantaged by more comprehensive and appropriate services according to their needs, but which were denied to African people. The predominantly therapeutic-oriented casework services which centrally characterise the residual system of welfare was, and still remain, gravely inappropriate for African people who continue to be gripped in structural and intense poverty (Ankrah 1987:22, Mupedziswa 1992:20, Hall 1993:355, McKendrick 1991:94).

The casework service emphasis in South Africa is underpinned by the belief that the individual is primarily the target for change owing to his/her maladjustment within the social system. Galloway (1991:242) has argued that by placing the responsibility for

change on the individual and neglecting the impact racist history has on Black people, the value of individualism becomes racist in social work practice. The nature of social work services therefore tended to perpetuate and reflect the values of domination, racism and oppression as it manifested in colonial rule and apartheid. Nevertheless, the social work profession continued to adhere to these forms of intervention, tending to seemingly ignore the realities of poverty and powerlessness of the disadvantaged sectors of the population. Midgley (1981:108) concurs with this as he writes: "Originally, these [problems of poverty, hunger, disease, etc.] were not regarded as social problems at all and even social workers took little notice of them, except when they were intrinsic to the individual cases they dealt with." However, Hough (1985:9) argues that this is appropriate for the South African context when he states:

"Our primary task is to help people who are unable to cope with the adaptive tasks of everyday living, irrespective of the nature of the environment....To fall into the trap of blaming outside forces simply leads to wasteful ranting and raving and our real professional task is neglected - that of helping our clients to mobilise their inner and outer resources for the immediate presenting problems. Our primary contact with the environmental conditions or so-called social problems is therefore specifically related to the person and the particular way [s]he is influenced by the problem."

Hough's argument attempts to legitimise the conservative and traditional stance of professional social work in South Africa, and reinforces the notion of the role of social workers as systems maintainers as opposed to social change agents. Hough's perspective, however, reflects the nature of contemporary social work practice which is almost exclusively therapeutically-oriented. McKendrick (1990a:12) reports that 90% of all social work services in Johannesburg is therapeutic, whereas Ramphal and Moonilal (1993:365) indicate that in Durban 80% of private welfare organizations use the casework method. This significant feature of social welfare impacts not only on the

appropriateness of social work in South Africa, but also on the nature of social work management.

However, of equal importance is the fact that the majority of South African social workers generally did not provide opposition to repressive apartheid laws, but instead implicitly and explicitly condoned the status quo which dramatically influenced the practice of social work and social work management in South Africa. Most significantly, it led to an overwhelming sector of the profession becoming part of the mechanisms of apartheid as it tacitly and overtly accepted the disparate welfare and repressive laws of the apartheid State (McKendrick 1987:247). Social work, therefore, became largely institutionalised as an organ of social control (Galloway 1991:244) as its primary focus of intervention was White individual pathology as opposed to, and at the expense of, the pervasive and intensifying problems of poverty and deprivation experienced by an overwhelming majority of African people. Ankrah (1987:8) also recognises the role of social control in current social work practice when she states: "...this remedial approach to intervention is the 'soft face' of social control, deflecting deprived groups from taking radical action to remedy their situation." Slabbert (1984:114) lends further support to this argument when she states: "...the social worker, in helping the client, can unconsciously contribute towards maintenance of the status quo."

From this discussion, it is evident that the legacies of colonialism and apartheid have profoundly influenced the nature of social work. It appears that the effects of the oppressive system of apartheid in particular is still rooted firmly within the profession

and that fundamental structural changes will need to be implemented in order to alter the present system of social work provision. Therefore, the following features of social work in apartheid South Africa have been identified as continuing to impact upon social work management:

- (a) *The residual nature of welfare provision established and perpetuated social work as a social control mechanism.*

A residual welfare model is essentially a reactive means of intervention, requiring the practitioner to respond to crises, and intervene only when the usual individual and family systems break down. Within this framework, social work managers have directed their efforts at initiating and perpetuating services which do not intervene at the root cause of problems, but instead merely serve to alleviate the symptoms as these manifest in social dysfunction. This model of social welfare does not encourage the active transformation of social systems, but serves to maintain them, indirectly limiting the manager's role to one of systems maintenance. The reactive nature of the work may possibly have, and still is, affecting social work management in that it encourages a reactive process of management which is also characterised by the lack of a structural change perspective. Reactive management, according to Mitroff (1978:141-142), involves a traditional approach to problem solving whereby the manager tends to repeat previously successful responses, views variables and dimensions from one given frame of reference and seeks to maintain the organizational culture and patterns of internal relationships as s/he found them. Mitroff (1978:142) drawing upon Schon (1971) has classified this approach as dynamic conservatism. It is evident from this description of reactive management that it

reinforces an adherence to a predominantly residual, therapeutically-oriented model of welfare with its emphases on systems maintenance and individual, as opposed to systems, pathology. Implicit in this process is the role of social control. Therefore, partially as a result of a historical residual model of welfare, managers as the leaders of the profession, have been required both indirectly and directly to engage in those roles which aim to maintain and control the system of social work provision, the agents of intervention (namely, social workers) as well as the processes of change within the system and the worker. Control and systems maintenance thus appear to be important hallmarks in viewing management behaviour and roles in the South African context of social work practice. However, this managerial dilemma as a result of a residual welfare model is not only problematic in South Africa. This trend also appears to be characteristic of the African continent owing to colonial history. Ankrah (1987:7) therefore argues that in order to effect the changing of the roles of social workers away from a residual approach for more appropriate practice in Africa, the roles of managers would also need to be radicalized away from that of systems maintenance since the latter are the "gatekeepers" to these changes.

- (b) *The racial basis of social welfare with the needs of white people being paramount has led to institutionalized racism.*

Van Niekerk (1994:175) contends that: "For much too long the rendering of social services in this country was a mechanism of instilling and reinforcing the immoral inequalities that the ideology of apartheid proposed as natural differences." This view describes social work as an institutionalised form of racism. Institutional racism has been comprehensively defined by Stafford and Ladner 1969 (in Jones 1974:219) as:

"...the operating policies, properties, and functions of an on-going system of normative patterns which serve to subjugate, oppress, and force dependence of individuals or groups by (1) establishing and sanctioning unequal goals, objectives, and priorities for blacks and whites, and (2) sanctioning inequality in status as well as in access to goods and services."

Institutional racism may have impacted on social work management in the following ways:

- (i) It possibly discouraged managers from actively opposing the system of racial oppression and domination, thus accounting for the tendency to operate within the prescriptions of the system. On the other hand, it could have reinforced the beliefs and attitudes of those managers who identified with the apartheid system. In both instances, the functional role of the social work manager seems to have been mainly one of controlling and maintaining a system of racism.
- (ii) It resulted in most social workers who are in managerial positions being white (Patel 1991:163) thus indicating that Black social workers are largely excluded from this domain of practice.
- (iii) Social welfare services were fragmented along racial lines, thus creating a situation where social work managers mainly managed workers from the same population group. This lack of diversity is problematic given a democratic context where race is no longer salient. The ability to manage diversity and be culture-sensitive may therefore be argued to be generally lacking within social work management. This view is also held by Ramphal and Moonilal (1993:368).

- (c) *The general reluctance by a large sector of social workers to oppose social injustice and repressive policies, but instead were open to co-optation within a socially unjust system.*

Whilst Midgley (1981:142) has argued that social workers are reluctant to confront issues of social injustice, it is also evident that there were a significant number of social workers who preferred to co-operate and/or identify with governing authorities. Drower (1991a:42) observes that certain sectors of the social work profession actively identified themselves with the (then apartheid) State. The collusion between social work and particularly the apartheid State is also evident in the following contention by McKendrick (1990a:247): "Social workers have remained in prominent positions in statutory bodies that tacitly endorse racism...[and] there is at least a superficial case for the social work profession having colluded with the power group to the disfavour of some of the profession's most fundamental values." This tendency within professional social work in South Africa strongly suggests that social work managers, who ultimately lead the profession and set the tone for actions that are taken, are to some extent responsible for this collusion which also indicates that generally managers are conservative, non-confrontative, and tend to give priority to the needs of those in power and secondary consideration to those who are disempowered and who most require social intervention. Therefore, since social work managers do not generally appear to take the lead in opposing issues of social injustice, it may be deduced that many social work managers tend to be guided by conservative values and thus concerned primarily with systems maintenance and control as defined by the power group to whom allegiance may have been established.

- (d) *An emphasis on individual pathology as opposed to mass poverty and deprivation.*

The focus in social work principally on individual pathology entails a method of management which reflects the same tenet of individualism vis-a-vis the social worker-manager relationship. Therefore, the widespread use of one-to-one supervision of caseworkers appears to be the most popular means of management in social work. However, this type of supervisory practice is not only labour intensive, but places considerable power within the ambit of the manager or supervisor who is able to exercise extensive control over the workload and action of the social worker. Blake and Mouton (1964:111) contend that one-to-one supervision allows for greater managerial control over the worker, Levy (1973:15) also recognises the extensive power which supervisors hold over supervisees, and Rothmund (1992:4) has identified that tensions may exist between the supervisor's role of educator and that of control agent in supervisory practice. As the predominant method of management, one-to-one supervision thus indicates extensive power and control over workers and the services being rendered. This reinforces the notion that control is pervasive within social work management in South Africa.

1.2. Statement of the Problem and the Subproblems

1.2.1. Problem Statement

Whilst certain features of social work under apartheid as discussed above have been changed such as the racial basis of welfare provision, the nature of social work and managerial practice as a result of apartheid has largely been inherited by a democratic South Africa. One of the major problems in social work management which has persisted is the apparent lack of managerial effectiveness which is evident from (a) the use of extensive managerial power and control which, from a historical analysis, implicitly indicates that this may be rooted in the colonialist and apartheid traditions of domination, and (b) services which are inappropriate and not aimed at meeting the basic needs of those people experiencing structural and abject poverty (McKendrick 1990a:13 and 1990b:244, Patel 1992:132, Smit 1994:4). The latter has been especially evident in the Western Cape through the adherence to the casework approach by the majority of traditional State subsidized social work organizations.

Whilst the inappropriateness of services may be attributed to a number of factors, in terms of social work management it may be directly linked to ineffective managerial practice. According to a performance model of social work management as proposed by Patti (1987:9), managerial effectiveness has to be measured in terms of service quality and outcome since the primary purpose of social work organizations is addressing client need. From this premise, it may be further argued that the inappropriateness of current therapeutically-oriented programmes in South Africa is an

important factor which demonstrates the problems in managerial orientation, performance and effectiveness. Whilst there may be a number of managers who are attempting to move away from previous modes of operation, the general trend still appears to be persisting mainly owing to the fact that social work management has itself been a product of the social welfare system in South Africa which (as argued above) was used as a mechanism of social control under apartheid in particular.

Managerial ineffectiveness may be examined from a range of perspectives. However, management style emerges as a significant feature since factors of power, control, and poor/low task accomplishment (as it manifests in service provision within social work) are central to concerns regarding style. For example, the degree to which power is used by the manager is a crucial factor in providing an indication of the effectiveness of a particular management style. Excessive use of control and power as is evident in South Africa strongly indicates the prevalence of largely ineffective authoritarian or bureaucratic management styles. Moreover, the type of management style used provides an indication of the level of effectiveness of the manager. For example, a manager employing a participatory management approach would be considered to be more effective than one who adheres to an authority-obedience or authoritarian style, particularly within the context of a democracy.

Management style is viewed as a core component of managerial effectiveness since it encompasses the manager's beliefs, values, attitudes, behaviours and priorities. As stated by Wolk, Way and Bleeke (1982:8): "Any salvation for the human services will come not from the application of technologies, but from the interpersonal skills of

human service managers and others." Therefore, the way in which social work managers, like other managers, perform their function is crucial to the success of their performance and the performances of the people they manage - which manifest in terms of service outcome. A distinctive style, like any "hard-core" management task such as planning, can therefore be developed as a crucial management skill in order to enhance effectiveness. Just as one finds, for example, bad planning so there are ineffective management styles.

Generally, it would appear that social work managers in South Africa have struggled to achieve an effective management style largely owing to the socio-political environment which regulated and impacted upon the manner in which social work was delivered. This may not only be concluded from the historical developments of social work in this country, but also from the experiences in the greater African continent. Hall (1993:355) states the following in this regard: "Management of welfare services in Africa takes place in a situation of extreme resource scarcity...[and this] combined with the likelihood of ...situations of drought, famine and pervasive poverty - tends to lead to management styles that are defensive and protective of the agency concerned". The prevalence of ineffective management styles within social work have also been observed by researchers abroad. Two independent studies by Malka (1989) and Russell, Lankford and Grinnell (1985) document the ineffective styles of managers within social work.

Therefore, owing to the nature of social work management in South Africa which, as has already been argued, is characterised by features such as an overt preoccupation

with power, authority, control and systems maintenance, it is apparent that these factors are indicators of styles which may have effectively served the needs of the apartheid era, but which are currently undesirable especially within the new democratic context of South Africa. The strong possibility that these styles are continuing to be predominant within the field of social work may be attributed to a number of factors as outlined below:

- (i) Whilst social work management in South Africa has been historically influenced by colonial processes of domination and control, the racist policies of apartheid which reinforced this legacy appears to have had a more profound effect. Social work management seems to be characterized by similar processes of control as apartheid domination. These entrenched practices and attitudes will therefore not change instantaneously.
- (ii) It has already been stated that casework constitutes 80% and 90% of social work services by private organizations in Durban and Johannesburg respectively. The adherence to a curative emphasis in service provision is characteristic of traditional social work organizations according to Smit (1992:24). This trend signifies an ongoing allegiance to past policies and most likely also managerial roles and styles characterised by extensive power and control.
- (iii) The bureaucratic nature of social work organizations limits changes in managerial behaviour and orientation, and instead encourages adherence to

organizational norms and policies. This is supported by Van Niekerk (1994:172) who states: "...management structures of social work in the new South Africa [has]...the obligation to move away from the grip of bureaucracy and inflexible rules towards an approach that is characterised by pragmatism and commitment to addressing the real needs of people..." Organizational bureaucratic structures may therefore constrain changes in managerial orientation.

(iv) Persons employed in managerial positions have often been promoted owing to, inter alia, being a good practitioner, length of service, field experience or to secure power relations. This has resulted in persons assuming managerial positions without necessarily being sufficiently competent for this new role (Van Biljon 1986:12, Verster 1992:11). Bamford (1982:177) feels that "social work is particularly vulnerable to the Peter Principle whereby people are promoted to the level beyond their competence." Consequently, social work is left with "poorly motivated and ill-equipped managers" (Bamford 1982:177). The ineffectiveness of management style therefore follows from this since style is a vital indicator of competency.

(v) With the exception of post-graduate programmes in social work administration at select universities in South Africa, as well as programmes and short courses offered by business schools, there is a severely limited number of well-researched management development programmes specifically designed to meet the needs of the social work manager particularly within the context of

South Africa. Midgley (1981:169) advocates for the training of practitioners in accordance with the specific environmental requirements and argues as follows:

"Where a demand for this type of involvement [in development] exists, schools of social work must give appropriate emphasis to these subjects and specialist post-basic courses should be offered. But these must be related specifically to the administration of social work services; training courses of this kind must be compatible with the profession's commitment to direct service and must prepare specialists who will facilitate the effective deployment of social workers in the field."

The lack of tailored management development programmes for social work has undoubtedly contributed to managers failing to critically evaluate and consequently change their roles and modes of operating.

- (vi) The paucity of South African social work management literature is also a major contributing factor. The limited local research initiatives within social work management and sparse critical reviews of present modes of operation, may present constraints for managers who are unsuccessfully seeking new directions. However, the American and European publications provide comprehensive documentation of research and development of models, yet may not be appealing to the South African manager who may be uncertain regarding its applicability within a different context of practice. The result may be that managers tend not to change their styles of operation, and continue to adhere to those roles of control prescribed by a highly regulated field of welfare owing to previous apartheid welfare policy and currently still unaltered State subsidization requirements.

It is evident from the above that the environment of racial domination in which the practice of social work was based until very recently, has severely limited its managerial development and effectiveness. This heritage has been carried into the era of democracy and change in South Africa. Despite the apparent limitations of these management practices, social work managers face additional challenges with the demands of a democratic South Africa. These challenges present new problems to social work management since specific skills and different orientations of practice will be required of managers to enhance their effectiveness. Central to this repertoire of skills is an effective management style.

1.2.2. The Subproblems

The postulation of managerial ineffectiveness particularly in terms of style, is further enhanced by the challenges which confront social work managers within a democratic context of practice. The major challenges identified here are: managing change, participative decision-making and managing diversity.

(a) Managing change

Managing change will be a critical challenge to those managers who have traditionally assumed roles of systems maintenance and control agents. The anticipated changes which will confront social work managers emerge directly as a result of democratic government and the consequent shifts in orientation and emphasis within social

welfare. The first of these changes is evident in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (1994) of the present Government of National Unity which requires the restructuring of the field of social welfare so that it is more responsive to the needs of the people. The restructuring process will principally involve an emphasis away from the current residual, therapeutically-oriented model of practice towards one of effective social development. This is not only a concern for South Africa, but has also been echoed throughout the African continent as is evident from the writings of Ankrah (1987), Mupedziswa (1992) and De Graaf (1986). De Graaf (1986:15) views social development as a process which enables people to control, utilise and increase the resources (such as land, labour, organization) and which will facilitate their capability to shape their lives in accordance with their needs. The requirements of the present government's RDP (1994) also reflects this principle. For the social work profession, led by its managers, to introduce changes toward a more proactive means of intervention would require a dramatic shift in focus. This will not only encompass changes in operation and structure, but also in perspective. For example, whereas previously managers were concerned mainly with the inputs of the organization - namely staffing, services, finance - it is anticipated that the emphasis will change to that of a focus on service outcomes. Bamford (1982:158) agrees that managers in general need to change their focus when he states: "Social work managers at all levels are having to cope with a change in orientation from a preoccupation with inputs...to an emphasis on outputs - the effectiveness of social work intervention." A shift to a focus on organizational output will be crucial to ensure that action and services are appropriate and effective. This may be reinforced by (i) the civil service which includes State subsidized institutions being under greater public scrutiny since

consumers will have a voice in the expenditure of taxes, and (ii) the accent of the new government on transparency may result in the manager as a leader (in addition to the organization) as being accountable and ensuring that the managerial job, as well as other positions in the organization, are justified in terms of their service appropriateness, effectiveness and efficiency.

However, another immediate concern for social work managers is affirmative action. The need for affirmative action within social work in South Africa is crucial since the present composition of social workers and managers is not reflective of the population groups of the country. Patel (1988:17) records an overwhelming number of registered social workers (66.7%) as being White, whereas the majority of people in South Africa are Black. This holds serious implications for the profession since it would appear that Black people do not have sufficient access to social work education and employment opportunities. Furthermore, White social workers, owing to their access to education and being favoured for positions of authority under apartheid, have dominated management structures (Patel and De Beer 1990:11). With the increasing pressure of political change, and the change in values to democracy, effectiveness, relevance and accountability - the new ethic as stated by Van Niekerk (1994:171) - social work management has to re-evaluate itself both in terms of ethics and practice. Social work, especially, which has throughout the apartheid era remained in the shadows of developmental efforts, will be increasingly pressurized to redress its white-dominated, conservative position. However, it would appear that there has been a relatively slow response from the social work sector. Ramphal and Moonilal (1993:365) acknowledge that whilst there is general agreement for affirmative action, this has generally not

been implemented. Social work management will therefore as a matter of urgency, particularly in the light of restructuring, have to design and engage in appropriate and effective affirmative action programmes for organizations as a matter of survival.

Yet another change which is anticipated is the unionization of social workers. Already in the United States many social workers have been unionised. Karger (1989:199) notes trends of unionization from 22% to as high as 69%. Within a new culture of rights in South Africa, the unionization of social workers is imminent. In a NEHAWU pamphlet De Goede (1993:3) states: "All workers should be unionised, and should have a healthy suspicion towards anyone and any argument that suggests that some institutions should be exceptions to the norms of Trade Union rights. All workers can be exploited and become victims of malpractice." Given this new context of practice, management will inevitably not only have to develop skills in managing workers differently, but will also have to be trained in industrial relations. Should social workers become unionized and thereby encouraged to negotiate for better working conditions and salaries, managers will need to be more responsive to worker needs and demands, whilst still ensuring that the needs of consumers and the organization are met.

The most important challenge for all managers will therefore be the management of change. However, in managing organizations within a context of political and environmental change, managers will first of all have to be aware of these changes before learning how to manage them. Managers are important players in ensuring that change occurs positively and with positive outcomes. This opinion is supported by

Bresnick (1983:194), and Bargal and Schmid (1989:52) who state: "...leadership in organizations plays the key role in their foundation, maintenance and adaptation to changing conditions." This is therefore particularly relevant in South Africa where managers need to be sufficiently skilled in managing change and in enabling others to positively engage within this process.

(b) Participative decision-making

Social work under apartheid was discouraged to operate according to democratic principles even though the latter may be considered to be a value of social work (Drower 1991b:274). This is particularly evident in the social control function which the profession assumed as argued earlier in this paper. Participative decision-making would therefore be a dramatic departure from the traditional modes of operating for many social work managers in South Africa. However, participative decision making has been discussed relatively extensively in the social work literature by authors such as Packard (1989 and 1993), Russell, Lankford and Grinnell (1985) and Malka (1989). There is general agreement in the literature that participative management is desirable and effective within social work management. Studies by Malka (1989) and Packard (1993) have indicated the preference for participative management by social workers. The benefits of worker participation in decision-making has also been noted by these authors but the view of Bargal and Schmid (1989:49) summarises the critical value thereof in terms of service effectiveness: "Professionals many times store practice knowledge and values regarding populations, technologies and interventions, which

actually constitute the foundation of the organization's performance."

However, it is not only worker, but also consumer participation which may be demanded within the South African context owing to an increasing focus on proactive and people-driven social development work. The need for consumer participation in development is recognised by Midgley (1987:5) who states that: "Few academics would quarrel with the view that development policies should be more sensitive to the needs of ordinary people or that opportunities for peoples' involvement in development projects should be enhanced..." In order to achieve meaningful participation of workers and consumers, current management practices may generally need to transform. This may be especially critical should democratic decision-making structures be demanded within organizations as a criterion for State funding.

(c) Managing diversity

Possibly one of the most common problems facing South African managers is that of diversity. Owing to the dawn of democracy and the need for the implementation of affirmative action, managers will be increasingly required to manage persons of different cultural, religious and social backgrounds. In social work, this will be particularly relevant since services according to race are being integrated and managers are being required to manage a diverse workforce. Ramphal and Moonilal (1993:368) report that whilst more than 50% of the respondents in their study indicated that problems of cultural diversity were not "too serious" at this early stage of

integration, they nevertheless argue that as integration becomes more extensive, this could pose more serious problems. Managing diversity also entails that individual and institutional racism needs to be reduced and in South Africa this will be vital owing to the apartheid heritage and the anticipation that there may be certain managers who may be resistant non-racist practices. Seck et al (1993:71) recognise that resistance in this regard is problematic within social work organizations when they write: "Attacking racism may be frightening for those who prefer the status quo, or who fear that they are not ready to face the difficult and sometimes threatening issues raised."

From the above discussion, it is evident that social work managers in South Africa are confronted with a range of issues which would need to be considered should they manage the transitions of restructuring and dramatic change. Not only will this require a shift in focus from a residual model of welfare to one of social development as a means of redistribution (Patel 1992:33), but the modus operandi of managers within organizations will in all likelihood also have to change in order to enable participation by workers and consumers as part of development initiatives. The sharing of power between social work managers and other stakeholders such as consumers will entail innovation in perspectives and models of operation. In meeting this challenge, managers as the "gatekeepers" of change will instead need to be role models for change. In order to be more receptive to change and to stimulate others in a similar fashion, management style emerges as being a sound basis from which to initiate this process. Management style sets the tone for interpersonal relationships, group interaction, organizational culture, and organizational performance. An effective style

will positively impact upon workers, the organization and services, and the manner in which these systems anticipate, implement and respond to change.

1.3. Hypotheses

It is hypothesised that management style is a primary determinant of managerial effectiveness. Therefore, by using a more effective management style, managerial effectiveness may increase. The independent variable is thus managerial style which, when identified, may be used as a basis from which to evaluate the effectiveness of the manager - the dependent variable.

It is further hypothesised that the managerial style needed for more effective management in South Africa is a participative style, that is, the 9/9 style in terms of the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid (1964). The Managerial Grid is explained in detail in Chapters 2 and 4.

1.4. Assumptions

- (a) *Present social work managerial styles are not effective in improving the nature of social services in South Africa.*

It is assumed that generally social work managers in South Africa are employing ineffective styles which are characterised by excessive use of authority and power,

allowing minimal worker and consumer participation within decision-making. It is further assumed that a participative/democratic management style which is more proactive, change-oriented and creative will be a more effective way of managing.

- (b) *The effective style for social work managers is the 9/9 way of managing as developed by Blake and Mouton (1967).*

Since the 9/9 style of management places equal and high emphasis on the effectiveness of services and the morale of people providing those services, it is suitable for social work where these variables, as in other organizations, are crucial in determining organizational effectiveness. The 9/9 way of managing integrates concern for people with concern for work efficiency instead of perceiving these as polar opposites. This effectively reduces conflict by the neglect of either factor at the expense of the other. In addition, the 9/9 approach encompasses participative decision-making, egalitarian practices toward workers as well as a change-orientation, which therefore presents as a model more congruent within the South African context of democracy.

- (c) *Management and its development are crucial to the improvement of social work services in South Africa.*

Since managers occupy positions of control over the use and allocation of both financial and human resources within organizations, they are in key positions to facilitate change towards improvements in service provision. Very often, organizational change is needed to achieve the latter and managers have the power to sanction, repress or initiate these changes. It is therefore crucial that managers continually

develop their skills particularly in promoting and managing change so that they may increase their capabilities for the benefit of consumers, workers and organizations.

- (d) *The limited management development programmes for social workers in South Africa has resulted in ineffective management, particularly, management style.*

Since social work managers have limited opportunities in terms of structured management development programmes specifically for social work (Smit 1994:7), the improvement of skills, particularly the interpersonal skills needed by managers, has been lacking. It appears that managerial styles by social work managers have mainly been developed by the managers themselves according their own experiences, personalities and belief systems. The lack of interpersonal skills training within social work management has also been noted by Wolk, Way and Bleeke (1982:9) when they argue for its inclusion in social work management training.

- (e) *The respondents in this study are representative of the population of social workers in the Western Cape.*

By including all social workers and managers in the major social work organizations in the greater Cape Town area, a good representation of respondents will be targeted and results will be more reliable in terms of their generalisation of social work managers within the Western Cape.

1.5. Definition of terms

(a) Management

The classical definition of management is one provided by Griffin (1987:8-9): "Management is the process of planning, decision-making, organising, leading, and controlling the organization's human, financial and information resources to achieve organizational goals in an efficient and effective manner." This definition is restricted to that of managerial technologies. However, according to Drucker (1980:167), management also entails a range of skills which he has classified as interpersonal, informational and decisional roles which essentially derive from the manager's authority and status. A holistic definition of management would therefore seek to combine the elements of managerial technologies with that of the interpersonal skills implicit in Drucker's analysis of managerial work. The definition of management for the purposes of this research study is thus as follows: management is the process of planning, decision-making, organizing, leading, controlling and transforming the organization's human, financial and information resources to achieve stated organizational goals in an effective and efficient manner thereby maximizing the service capacity of the organization, through the utilization of interpersonal, creative and innovation skills in the accomplishment of work tasks through people.

(b) Management style

Managerial style is concerned with the manner in which the manager performs his/her tasks. Kotin and Sharaf (1987:168) submit that management style is "one aspect of the executive's personality." However, Russell, Lankford and Grinnell (1987:150) and Berg (1987:141) tend to agree that style is concerned with the managers' patterns of behaviour which they exercise within the workplace. Berg's definition is more detailed in this respect and shall therefore be used as a basis of a definition for the purposes of this study. Management style is, therefore, the "distinctive and dynamic patterns of behaviour that are exhibited by a leader, patterns that make the leader's behaviour unique, and patterns that provide some measure of consistency and predictability to his/her behaviour" (Berg 1987:141), and which indicate the manager's philosophy of management, that is, his/her assumptions, values, attitudes and beliefs about work, workers, organization and the social structure.

(c) Social worker

A social work is defined as a qualified and professional person who engages social work methods and social change initiatives with people in the prevention and/or alleviation of social problems to restore and enhance the social functioning of clients and communities to improve their quality of living.

(d) Leadership

Leadership is not viewed as being synonymous to management. Rather, it is seen as being an essential component of managerial practice. The definition of leadership according to Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1973:290) will be used for the purposes of this study: "An interaction between persons in which one presents information of a sort and in such a manner that the other becomes convinced that his[or her] outcomes will be improved if [s]he behaves in a manner suggested or desired." Leadership is therefore the ability to influence others in a positive and constructive manner. Glisson (1989:100) endorses this view when he states that "researchers who define leadership as the power to create an enthusiastic and optimistic organizational climate emphasize that this power lies in the leaders' abilities to influence the attitudes and perspectives of followers."

(e) Organizational culture

According to Schein (1985:9) organizational culture may be viewed as "a pattern of basic assumptions - invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration - that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems."

(f) Organizational change

Hasenfeld (1980:510) presents a definition of organizational change in terms of a political economic perspective: "...[it is] the modification of the resource-allocation rules in the organization, resulting in shifts in power among units in it." This definition conforms to Mayer's (1972:37) notion of structural change which entails the altering of the system of social relationships within organizations. However, the operational definition of organizational change which will be used for the purposes of this study is as follows: the change processes initiated within organizations in a planned manner aimed at increasing organizational effectiveness, efficiency and capacity and which entails the altering of relationships, including power relations and structures which affect all organizational participants.

(g) Power

Pfeffer (1981:4) states that power is difficult to define, but notes that most definitions include a reference to the ability of a social actor to overcome resistance and cause desired behaviours by others (Pfeffer 1981:2). Implicit within this definition is the element of force. However, Lukes (1974:34) defines power as "...when A affects B in a manner contrary to B's interests." A critique of this view is that A may also exert power over B in a manner that may promote B's interests. Therefore, a simple definition of power which will be used in this paper is provided by Neugeboren (1991:127) who states that: "Power is the ability to obtain involuntary compliance."

(h) Authority

Pfeffer (1981:4) views authority as legitimated power, so that those "within the setting expect and value a certain pattern of influence."

(i) Managerial effectiveness

Managerial effectiveness is commonly perceived as "doing things right." However, Sugarman (1988:24) states that effectiveness refers to the outcome of individual or collective effort. Bamford (1982:158) also associates effectiveness with output. This, together with the recognition that social work management needs to be more client-centred (Gowdy, Rapp, Poertner 1993), particularly within the South African context where this has been seriously neglected, the following definition of managerial effectiveness has been formulated: managerial effectiveness refers to the degree to which the manager achieves, as a result of his/her engagement within the managerial process, those desired and appropriate organizational outcomes primarily based on needs as identified by consumers.

The above are conceptual definitions since the multiplicity of human behaviour limits the formulation of operational definitions. Allport (1989:69) acknowledges that most definitions which attempt to be reliable, objective and valid have not attained this level of objective perfection. For example, providing an operational definition of management style will entail listing all the elements considered significant regarding

the manager's behaviour patterns, assumptions, beliefs, values and attitudes in respect of the work environment and organizational participants. Operationalization would therefore involve a multidimensional description which would in all probability still not be exhaustive. Specifying the different attributes, therefore, of a given variable (Babbie 1983:138) such as managerial style would not be practical, economic nor would it do justice to the term. Therefore, the definitions above are used as a basis from which a more in-depth analysis of management style and managerial effectiveness in particular will take place in Chapters 4, 5 and 6.

1.6. Limitations of the study

(a) Management style focus

The study will be focusing purely on the identification of dominant managerial styles as classified by Blake and Moutons' Managerial Grid (1964). This limits the identification of alternative styles beyond the Grid such as a learning management style. Moreover, a management style focus involves an analysis of principally the interpersonal skills of managers. The manager's technical knowledge of, for example, planning, evaluating and implementation is not assessed. Therefore, managers who excel technically may indicate poor managerial styles, and this may result in the identification of managerial ineffectiveness which may not necessarily be accurate.

(b) Generalising organizational contexts

The measuring instruments used in the study, namely the Styles of Management Inventory (Hall 1986) and the Management Appraisal Survey (Hall, Harvey and Williams 1986), do not examine the specific organizational context within which managerial behaviours are assessed, but instead focuses on the manner in which the manager responds to a variety of given scenarios. The instrument is based on the hypothesis that managers need a particular effective style despite the organizational context. While there is sufficient merit in this, situational management theorists such as Brody (1993:6) argue that specific organizational factors such as traditions, work habits and expectations directly influence management style and need to be taken into account when evaluating managerial behaviour. Since the instrument does not measure these factors, its limitation in this regard is thus recognised.

(c) Urban bias

Since social work services in South Africa are largely urban based (Patel 1988:5, Woods 1994:81), the larger social work organizations which will be targeted for inclusion within this study predominantly operate within the urban and surrounding areas of Cape Town. The urban bias of the study is therefore acknowledged.

(d) Descriptive survey method

The aim of this study is the identification of management styles utilized within social work. A descriptive survey method is therefore being utilised since the objective of this research method is only to ascertain the distribution of certain characteristics within a given population, and not to explore the reasons for the distribution (Grinnell 1988:301-302). Therefore, whilst this study will aim to identify managerial styles, the factors which determine these styles will not be examined.

1.7. The importance of the study

(a) Lack of research into social work management

Despite its limitations, the study will be directed at a very neglected but crucial aspect of social work practice in South Africa, that being social work management. Effective management, as in commerce and industry, is integral to the success of any organization. Social work is no exception. Management is the key to organizational effectiveness, efficiency and development. However, unlike other economic sectors, management of social work particularly in South Africa is insufficiently researched, developed and scrutinised. This study will be the first at identifying managerial styles in the Western Cape. It will hopefully pave the way for more research to be undertaken within this under-researched area of practice.

(b) Use of reliable assessment instruments

The management style assessment instruments which will be used in this study, the Styles of Management Inventory (SMI) (Hall 1986) and the Management Appraisal Survey (MAS) (Hall, Harvey and Williams 1986) have been used internationally, including in the field of human services. Both instruments show median coefficient of stability scores of more than 0.7. The reliability of these instruments is therefore statistically high and indicates that the results will be a valid and reliable reflection of management styles within social work organizations in the Cape Town area. In addition, the Styles of Management Inventory enables a self-assessment of managerial style by managers, and the Management Appraisal Survey achieves this from the perspectives of social workers. By using these companion instruments, the reliability and validity of the research results will be enhanced as the responses of managers may then be compared to those of social workers.

(c) Contribution to change

Social work management in South Africa, as has already been mentioned, is particularly important since these individuals hold considerable power in deciding how inter alia human services are delivered, what the nature of these services will be, and how finances will be allocated and utilised. Moreover, a range of policy issues also fall within the ambit of social work management - these issues impact both on the intra-organizational processes and the constituency which the organization is serving.

Managers therefore need to re-examine their modus operandi continually in order to ensure that their tasks are performed increasingly more effectively to the benefit of the organization and client system. This research study will provide valuable information as to how managers are performing at the present time. By using the research results, managers may be able to identify weaknesses in their style that would need attention and which possibly need to change. By providing managers with some information as to their own performance, the study will be indirectly impacting on the effectiveness of service provision which is, or should be, of paramount concern to all in the field of social work.

(d) Exploring alternative, more effective managerial styles

Managers often assume that their present style is in the best interests of themselves and/or the organizations in which they are employed. By highlighting the importance of managerial style as a means of increasing managerial effectiveness, this study will hopefully encourage managers to explore alternative and more effective ways of operating in their quest to cope more constructively with the specific challenges of a democratic South African context of practice. Furthermore, the study will present a model of a style specifically for social work managers in South Africa. This may encourage managers to be creative either in experimenting with this style or using the latter as a basis from which to develop a more effective one. The results of this research study has been presented to the majority of participating organizations through visual and written presentations, thus generating discussion and promoting critical reflection by managers regarding their use of management style.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Within the management literature there are a number of trends or schools of thought regarding the factors that determine effective management styles. The early classical theorists such as Taylor argued for an emphasis on task accomplishment and highly controlled managerial approaches. With the development of the humanistic approach to management, the behaviour of the manager became the focus of examination. Initially, researchers adhering to this approach attempted to ascertain those behavioural traits which are characteristic of an effective leader and manager. Mintzberg (1980:17) notes that these trait theorists met with limited success since no significant correlations between effective managerial performance and specific behavioural traits were found. This led to a shift of focus onto management style from the 1960s when the "humanists," according to Mintzberg (1980:17), argued for participative, people-oriented styles as an alternative to the autocratic, task-oriented classical styles. Hereafter, the situational or contingency management school emerged which posited the view that there is no one best way to manage and that the situational variables should determine the nature of managerial style.

The move away from the classical models of management towards the humanistic approaches indicates that thinking shifted from conceptualising effective management

as the mastering of functional skills such as planning, co-ordinating, controlling and evaluating which have traditionally been regarded as central to the management process, towards a more holistic approach which encompasses an understanding of human nature. Within the social work management literature, this has been particularly argued by Abels and Murphy (1981:215) and Wolk, Way and Bleeke (1982:4) who propose that management is an art and not a science, that is, it requires interpersonal skills above that of technical knowledge.

However, despite these developments, both the classical/scientific and humanistic approaches form the foundations of current managerial practice. The Scientific and Humanistic models of management are therefore of central importance in the development of managerial style and in the application of these models in social work. These models will therefore be reviewed since they have significantly shaped the study of management and continue to be developed and innovatively implemented within contemporary workplace settings, including social work organizations.

2.2. Scientific Management Theory and Style: Taylorism

Scientific Management had a profound effect on the development of managerial thought as it formed the basis from which formal managerial inquiry took place. The philosophy and principles of Scientific management firmly established management as a power group within industry and related work environments to such an extent that contemporary managerial activity is still based partially or wholly on this model.

Braverman (1974:86) lends support to this argument when he states: "It is impossible to overestimate the importance of the scientific management movement in the shaping of the modern corporation and indeed all institutions of capitalist society which carry on labor processes." The significance which these developments has for social work is that some of the Scientific principles and philosophies have also been uncritically incorporated into the professional management of social workers. Weinbach (1994:45) notes that: "While few current social work managers would admit to being a product, say, of the scientific management or administrative management schools, their behaviour as managers suggests that [these] earlier theories are alive and well and still a major influence on their behaviour."

The first studies of management were carried out by Frederick Taylor which credited him with the title "Father of Scientific Management". Taylor's work mainly involved time and motion studies in his quest to ascertain "a fair day's work" - the maximum output of a worker at a sustained pace without causing physical injury. Taylor attempted to develop technical procedures of management which would enable maximum worker productivity with the least cost to the company. He therefore advocated for the fragmentation, specialization and standardization of the labour process which, he argued, had to be scientifically determined in order to ensure efficiency. The features of the Scientific model entails the enforcement of work procedures as determined by management, the training of workers to perform these tasks according to managerial specifications, and an incentive scheme to ensure that work is produced at a faster rate. Taylor placed the control of the labour process entirely within the ambit of management and writes as follows:

"It is only through enforced standardization of methods, enforced adoption of the best implements and working conditions, and enforced cooperation that this faster work can be assured. And the duty of enforcing the adoption of standards and of enforcing this cooperation rests with management alone.....All those who, after proper teaching, either will not or cannot work in accordance with the new methods and at the higher speed must be discharged by management" (Taylor 1911:83).

According to the Scientific model, therefore, workers are viewed as impersonal units of production which may be manipulated in various ways in order to achieve maximum productivity and efficiency. The process and ownership of production, according to the Scientific school, is therefore the exclusive domain of management and hence capital and the contribution of the worker is merely one of execution and not that of reflecting upon the work process. In this regard Taylor (1911:83) writes:

"But the science of doing any kind of work cannot be developed by the workmen. Why? Because he has neither the money nor the time to do it. The development of the science of doing any kind of work always required the work of two men, one man who actually does the work which is to be studied and another man who observes closely the first man while he works and studies the time problems and the motion problems connected with this work."

This model found particular favour with managers and capitalists since it meant that the production process and the control thereof became intrinsically part of capital. Braverman (1974:116) concurs with this when he writes: "Not only is capital the property of the capitalist, labour itself has become part of capital. Not only do the workers lose control over their instruments of production, but they must now lose control over their own labour and the manner of its performance." The power of the manager is therefore unlimited in controlling labour as an object of capital according to the Scientific management model.

In order to further entrench managerial control, Taylor also proposed the limitation of what he called "soldiering". Natural soldiering is the tendency of workers to be idle and, systematic soldiering is the tendency among workers to deliberately ensure that their managers do not know how fast they can work (Taylor 1911: 19). A basic assumption of Scientific management is therefore that people are not motivated to work, and will collectively organise to work at a slower and less productive pace.

The principles of Scientific management which Taylor advocated to ensure maximum productivity and managerial control, according to Braverman (1974:113), are therefore:

- (i) the dissociation of the labour process from the skills of the workers
- (ii) the separation of conception from execution, that is, the separation of mental from manual labour
- (iii) the use of a monopoly over managerial knowledge to control each step of the labour process and its mode of execution.

The Taylorist style of management is therefore one of extreme managerial control encompassed within an authority-obedience approach. The primary focus of this managerial style is efficient task accomplishment with minimal concern for worker needs, views or feelings.

Despite the harshness of Scientific management, it heralded the start of inquiry into managerial processes and behaviours. This legacy has had a profound effect on managerial attitudes and actions through time. This approach is still widely used to this day although in many cases improvisations have been made to ensure discretion. However, its popularity has persisted both overtly and latently. In production plants and profit-making enterprises, scientific management can be recognised by assembly-line work and job specialisation. The prominence of scientific management in the

manufacturing industry is supported by findings in a study by Caplan (1971). The assumptions underpinning the Scientific management model such as inherent worker idleness and their non-reflective capacity often form the basis of current (and often private) managerial attitudes and behaviours. The lack of consultation with workers regarding the implementation of programmes and activities, the institution of incentive schemes to raise productivity levels, changes and policies imposed from top management without concern for worker responses, and so on are all characteristic of management styles of the Scientific approach.

2.2.1. Critique of Taylorism

(i) Mechanization and Dehumanization

Since Taylorism concentrates solely on the work process advocating stringent control measures and integrating workers as part of the production apparatus, its view of management and organizations is one of mechanisation. Bennis (1969:15) has identified mechanistic organizational systems as having strict division of labour and hierarchical supervision with a centralised decision-making structure which managers "work on by pushing buttons". This approach results in the dehumanisation of workers and the labour process within which they are intricately involved. The latter is endorsed by Fullagar (1983:9) who writes: "...if scientific management had a view of man, it was a mechanistic and dehumanizing one. The worker became a commodity in the production of other commodities."

Scientific management principles therefore seem to be influenced by the Cartesian world view of positivism where predictability, control, and observable phenomena are exclusively regarded as being valid. By solely concentrating on the latter, Scientific management presents a positivist model of management which negates the importance of intangible phenomena such as emotion or the human spirit. Being firmly entrenched within the positivist philosophy, Scientific management is undeniably a reflection of the times within which it was born, that being greatly influenced by the developments within the natural sciences, notably by the studies and writings of Descartes and Newton (Capra 1983).

(ii) Promoting bureaucratization

The features of Scientific management coincide with the major characteristics of bureaucratic types of organizations. Smith (1979:24) lists these as follows:

- (i) "A hierarchical authority structure based on official position rather than the individuality of the incumbent.
- (ii) A system of rules governing the rights and duties of these positions.
- (iii) A detailed system of rules and regulations for dealing with each particular case.
- (iv) A clear-cut and highly specialized division of labour.
- (v) Impersonal social relations, with management based on written documents (the 'files')
- (vi) Recruitment of officials to a salaried career with security of tenure on the basis of technical qualifications."

The Scientific model favours bureaucratic forms of organization since managerial control over work processes may be maximised within this structure. The use of linking pin structures of vertical control ensures minimal worker participation in decision-making and increased power at the top of the organizational hierarchy. The adherence to rigid structures and modes of operating quells worker initiative and creativity, the

results of which are increasing inefficiency, the ironic opposite of the initial aim (Mouzelis 1975:47). The system of organization also becomes more entrenched within its functioning and power-base so that it justifies its existence in terms of efficiency.

(iii) Failing to recognise conflict

Scientific management does not recognise the potentially conflict-laden contexts for work which it creates by virtue of its suppressive and control measures. By perpetuating the vision of stable and effective organizations, managers adhering to the Scientific model have tended to overlook the levels of conflict prevalent in organizations owing to the problems of Scientific management. Fullagar (1983:12) recognises this when he states: "...it [Scientific Management] never questions the goals of the organization and their compatibility with individual health...[it] never investigates the structural characteristics of the organization and the interrelationship and interaction between the formal structures."

This uncritical acceptance of internal structures and the denial of the problems of conflict arising from them are necessary for the maintenance of power by management and capital. The needs of the latter are paramount and those of labour are interpreted to correspond with those of management. Since the needs of workers and that of the organization do not always coincide, the tensions created are simply one area of conflict not resolved by the Scientific management model.

2.2.2. Scientific Management in Social Work

The application of scientific management principles has been widely implemented within social work settings in South Africa. Evidence of this in contemporary social work organizations are the similarities as mentioned by Fullagar (1983:11) with the features of modern scientific management which are:

- (i) specialization and division of work within the organization so that each person has a specific assigned task
- (ii) a unity of command and centralized system of authority
- (iii) communication mostly down the line.

These features characterise many social work organizations as outlined below.

(i) Specialisation of work tasks.

Social workers tend to be employed according to a particular social work methodology which entails a specialised area of practice. Since it has already been argued that social work in South Africa is predominantly characterised by casework provision, it may therefore be concluded that specialisation of work tasks is salient within social work practice.

(ii) Hierarchical control structures

Human service organizations traditionally employ linking pin structures of vertical control. Social workers are usually situated at the bottom of the organizational hierarchy, with direct supervisors forming a middle management structure and top

managers such as directors being at the apex. This is the traditional form of most social work organizations (Rice 1973:20).

(iii) Communication mostly down the line

In social work organizations which, as has already been argued are bureaucratic in nature, decision-making tends to take place within the higher echelons of management and passed on to those lower in the hierarchy.

The use of scientific management principles within social work organizations has been noted by Gruber (1974:627-629), Hasenfeld (1983:19), Brannon (1985:24), Grasso (1993:17), and particularly by Patti (1975 in Brannon 1985:23-24) who contends that the indications of the "new scientific management" are:

- (i) "mandates for comprehensive (rational) plans
- (ii) automation of program implementation to increase predictability
- (iii) an efficiency emphasis reinforced by programme evaluation."

Scientific management thus characterises the nature of social work management to a significant extent. Not only is this evident from the organizational characteristics as discussed above, but also in terms of management practices. This does not necessarily imply that these developments within social work are entirely negative. Scientific management principles are often needed to ensure the effective and efficient accomplishment of tasks. However, Scientific management appears not to be practised in its "pure form" in social work. "New Scientific management" as termed by Patti (1975 in Brannon 1985:23) seems to be more characteristic of social work

management. For example, systems theory and a derivative from this approach, namely, management by objectives (MBO) are extensively utilised in social work as 'modern' forms of Scientific management. These approaches represent attempts at integrating Scientific management with Human Relations orientations in order to achieve a more holistic approach to management. Abels and Murphy (1981:170) have referred to this as a convivial approach to management. However, systems theory and MBO will be examined below to illustrate how these approaches are essentially underpinned by Scientific management principles and assumptions, and thereby present limitations within their implementation.

Example 1: Systems Theory

Social work literature and practice makes extensive use of systems theory in analysing not only organizations and communities, but also in diagnosing personality and family structures. Hasenfeld (1983) is perhaps the most noted social work management writer advocating for a systems analysis to social work organizations. He posits that human service (social work) organizations are people-processing bureaucracies, that is, people are the raw materials which the organization attempts to transform (Hasenfeld 1983:4). This approach views consumers as products which like inanimate objects may be processed or worked on so that a "different" end product results. Social work intervention is therefore seen as a work input which should anticipate a desired outcome. Gruber (1974:629) criticizes this model since input-output analyses are usually associated with Taylorism. In this respect, Gruber (1974:629) writes: "...human beings recede from view because they are seen as mere 'cogs' in the machine. The

factory system and the assembly line are created as the conceptual ideal for all other organizations, and they reduce everything and everyone to raw material, product, input and output."

The danger therefore, of applying a systems analysis to social work is that the dehumanizing effect which is a central critique of Taylorism, is also perpetuated since human beings are viewed as merely forming a system which may be manipulated to conform to a desired state. However, a systems perspective has been applied to social work management, most notably by Glisson (1981) who advocates for the application of a systems or contingency analysis to social welfare administration.

Glisson (1981:28) argues that a contingency model is appropriate to social work management since it has emerged from general systems theory and therefore may be easily integrated into social work. According to this model, management is viewed as a subsystem which affects four other subsystems within the organization, namely, goals and values which in turn affect technology used, the latter then affecting the organizational structure which influences the psychosocial subsystem (Glisson 1981:23). Whilst this approach may enable a better understanding of the causal relationships between organizational factors, as well as the significance of the organizational environment in determining managerial and organizational performance and growth, it nevertheless encourages a positivist view of human beings whereby issues such as experience, history and personal interaction are explored in a very limited way.

The contingency style of management is essentially a situational response to environmental conditions as perceived by the manager. That is, managerial style needs to be adjusted to achieve maximum "fit" with the nature of the problem and the context. The manager thus assesses which managerial approach would be the most effective within that circumstance. Patti (1982:169) argues that a contingency style of management is best suited to social work organizations since it allows for a range of alternative responses to the dynamic task environment. However, this approach presents a serious limitation in that it gives the manager the exclusive power in deciding which approach to assume, even though the possibilities exist that the manager's assessment of the situation may be inaccurate, or that the manager may consciously assume styles which promote his/her position of power and/or control at the expense of the organization. These limitations indicate that the contingency style of management is based on the Scientific management principle where the control and power of the manager is emphasised and not questioned.

Example 2: Management-by-Objectives (MBO)

MBO is an approach derived from systems theory since it entails a focus on organizational goals and the building of worker structures/programmes to achieve these goals, thus presupposing that goal-achievement is an important factor in worker morale, satisfaction and recognition (Abels and Murphy 1981:170).

MBO was first introduced by Drucker (1968) as a system of management which involves planning, organizing, directing and controlling the labour process in such a manner that organizational and individual goals are related (Mullins 1989:258). Mullins (1989:258) has criticised MBO as "likened to a modern form of scientific management" in that it places too great an emphasis on a management authority structure and assumes that no conflict exists between individual and organizational goals. Yet, MBO has been applied relatively uncritically by its protagonists within the social work literature, for example, by Wiehe (1985) and Raider (1985) in their attempts to promote a more rational, defined and measurable approach to management.

The four steps of the MBO process are outlined by Kreitner (1989:254) as follows:

- (i) setting objectives
- (ii) developing action plans
- (iii) periodic review
- (iv) performance appraisal.

Patti (1982:165) notes that much of the MBO literature advocates for an inductive approach to MBO which requires staff participation within the MBO process particularly in the formulation of organizational goals and objectives. Therefore, whilst superficially it may appear that MBO embraces humanistic principles in that both workers and management need to be involved in the MBO processes as outlined above, the manner of implementation, however, strongly indicates a congruence with Scientific management principles as power is largely vested in managerial authority to monitor work activity, flow and output. The consequence is that meaningful worker participation may be circumvented. Patti (1982:165) classifies this as a deductive approach to MBO as he recognises that MBO is usually implemented within a sharply hierarchical

context so that worker participation in goal formulation is narrowly prescribed by managers higher in the hierarchy. A number of problems consequently emerge as significant in the application of MBO within social work. The first is that MBO ensures that organizational power remains with management. Since the system theoretically focuses solely on the joint setting of work objectives, this may limit worker participation in decision-making to this function only. Workers' views regarding issues such as work conditions, organizational change initiatives, or policies may therefore not be considered to be necessary since it does not form part of the MBO process. Patti (1981:165) has also recognised this limitation when he states that less easily operationalized goals such as the humane treatment of clients may not be as equally emphasized as would more concrete objectives such as output units.

Moreover, assuming that objectives are jointly set, it appears that the onus is primarily with the worker to ensure that they are met. The manager may bear little or no responsibility in achieving work objectives. A consequence of this could be that managers would tend to dissociate themselves from taking responsibility for those objectives which are proven to be inappropriate, or which could not be achieved. This may also increase managerial power over workers who are unable to meet performance standards. Kreitner (1989:161) agrees with the limitations of the MBO process in this regard: "MBO's emphasis on measurable objectives can be used as a threat by overzealous managers."

Thus, the strengths of the approach as with Scientific management, is that it focuses on measurable objectives and emphasises outcome as opposed to process, thus

being more likely to ensure task accomplishment. However, the successful implementation of MBO may depend on a number of contingencies, such as the manner of implementation, and the organizational culture which also emerges as being an important factor. Humble (1970:17) concurs with this when he states: "Most managers will respond with vitality to the really challenging objectives if they are involved in establishing them and if they work in an organizational climate which encourages self-development, self control, and an easy flow of communications." However, Humble's perspective assumes that MBO is implemented in an inductive manner.

In solely adhering to a rigid focus on objectives, MBO appears to operate under the assumptions which essentially reflect a Scientific management approach. In terms of a Managerial Grid analysis (Blake and Mouton 1964) of managerial style, a traditional deductive MBO approach which is mechanistic and involves extensive administrative procedures, would rate as a 9/1 orientation of high concern for performance and low concern for people.

The limitations of the Scientific and "new Scientific" models have provided impetus to the Human Relations theorists who have, as the term suggests, focused on the human aspects of managerial work and organizational experience.

2.3. Human Relations Models of Management Style

The move towards the Human Relations School of management followed from the shifts in thinking in the natural sciences. The positivist world view of Descartes and Newton which dominated scientific thinking, was questioned with the development of the theory of relativity which dispelled the notions of tangibility and absolute certainty. This movement in thinking contributed towards researchers questioning the validity of the Scientific model (Capra 1983:63-83).

Elton Mayo first introduced the concepts of the Human Relations School of Management with his Hawthorne investigations in the 1930s where he demonstrated the needs of workers to be understood and treated as human beings. Mayo (1984:286) in particular refers to the "emotional release" by workers who, after participating within his large-scale interview programme, had the opportunity to openly discuss their experiences and views of work. Mayo's research heralded the move away from the rigidity of the Scientific approach towards the Human Relations model as he recognised the intense impact which Cartesian positivist thought yielded both onto the workplace and society:

"I had not fully realised in 1932...how profoundly the social structure has been shaken by scientific, engineering and industrial development. This radical change - the passage from an established to an adaptive social order - has brought into being a host of new and unanticipated problems for management and for the individual worker...No longer does the supervisor work with a team of persons that he has known for many years or perhaps a lifetime; he is a leader of a group of individuals that forms or disappears almost as he watches it." (Mayo 1984:284).

The move away from the Scientific model was therefore necessitated owing to changes in social conditions which demanded more human understanding particularly within the workplace, which occurred as a result of increasing scepticism of the positivist world view. McGregor's model (1960) most aptly demonstrates the stark move away from the established order.

2.3.1. McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y essentially illustrates the fundamental differences between the Scientific and Humanistic Management approaches, as well as the polar assumptions underpinning each school of thought. He exposes the severe limitations of the Scientific model and advocates for a Humanistic style of management.

The managerial assumptions of Theory X, representing the traditional Taylorist view of direction and control, and those of the Human Relations School which integrates individual and organizational goals are presented in the table below:

Theory X	Theory Y
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if s/he can. 2. Most people must be coerced, directed, controlled and threatened to get them to achieve organizational goals. 3. Most people avoid responsibility, have little ambition, want security most of all, and prefer to be directed in their work. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Work is as natural as play or rest. 2. People are capable of self direction and control in the attainment of goals to which they are committed. 3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. 4. The average human being is capable of learning to accept and receive responsibility. 5. Many people in the population are able to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity. 6. In modern life, the intellectual potentials of people are only partially realised.

TABLE 1: The Assumptions of Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor (1990:21-22) notes the different principles of organization derived from Theory X and Theory Y. The "scalar principle" of authoritarian control is operative under Theory X. According to McGregor, a style of management that rests on Theory X assumptions is ineffective in present organizations: "Theory X explains the consequences of a particular managerial strategy, it neither explains nor describes human nature although it purports to" (McGregor 1984:324). Weinbach (1994:263) argues that Theory X managers would mistrust their subordinates, assume that their

authority is resented thereby enforcing compliance, and would regularly check up on workers expecting to catch them at a moment of idleness or making a mistake.

In contrast, the central principle derived from Theory Y is that of integration: "the creation of conditions such that members of the organization can achieve their own goals *best* by directing their efforts toward the success of the enterprise" (McGregor 1990:21-22). According to the human relations perspective, this is the more effective style of management since its view of human nature and behaviour recognises the creative and intellectual contribution of the worker within the process of production. Theory Y therefore epitomises an attempt at a more organic model of managerial practice and organizational functioning. The characteristics of organic systems according to Bennis (1969:15) are an emphasis on human relationships, and shared responsibility and control as a means of achieving organizational effectiveness. Weinbach (1994:263) depicts the style of the Theory Y manager as capitalizing on "the assumed inherent capacities of individual subordinates" by communicating trust, recognising that goals are shared, and facilitating a work environment which engenders growth and creativity using restrictive controls only when absolutely necessary. In contrast, Theory X aptly represents a Scientific Management approach which is often criticized for the mechanistic and dehumanizing view of human beings as workers, where the elements of extreme managerial direction and control are implicit within the model.

Therefore, under Theory X, workers are required to adapt their needs to that of the organization, the latter being largely determined by management. According to the

principle of Theory Y, the needs of the workers and that of the organization are recognised and integrated so that the worker forms an important and valuable part of the organization whose contribution and human potential will inevitably result in the success of the organization.

2.3.1.1 Critique of Theory Y

While the Human Relations Model of management as depicted by Theory Y may be viewed as a reaction to the harshness and rigidity of Taylorism or Theory X, it may also be viewed as a natural extension of Scientific Management as it ensures that worker opposition to managerial control is minimised. Theory Y may call for lesser management control, but it does not specifically refer to power-sharing in the workplace. The ownership of labour is still maintained with capital, with the exception that the scenario ensures that workers' contributions are recognised in a bid to limit and defuse conflict. This may be a particularly necessary strategy since the development of the trade union movement from the 1920s highlighted the needs and rights of workers in opposition to that of employer organizations.

Another point of critique involves the central principle of integration of worker and organizational goals. The difficulty will inevitably arise as to whether worker needs are genuinely recognised by management, or whether their needs are dictated or formulated by the managers themselves. Hasenfeld (1983:28) has also raised this concern.

2.3.1.2. Theory Y in Social Work Organizations

Whilst Theory X and Theory Y are extremes in the determination of a particular managerial style, most managers tend to have assumptions from both theories underpinning their practice. However, Mullins (1988:240) feels that Theory Y is appropriate for volunteer and human service organizations since commitment to organizational goals is emphasised under this theory. Hasenfeld (1983:24) also states that the human relations perspective has been more appealing to managers within the human services owing to its emphasis on the motivation, attitudes and commitment of practitioners and consumers, as well as the use of self which is critical in the helping process.

However, Theory Y in social work also presents problems. As a managerial style, it uncritically appears to emphasise the needs of people, particularly their need to work towards organizational goals. Organizational conflict is consequently, as in Scientific Management, not taken into account. The weaknesses of the Theory Y approach is also recognised by Hasenfeld (1983:28) who lists the following limitations within human service organizations:

- (i) the theory ignores the internal and external political and economic factors which influence organizational performance
- (ii) the use of this model may result in the manipulation of workers, for example, in decision-making which may be largely meaningless and symbolic
- (iii) this model may be viewed as an organizational "cure-all" and may divert focus away from the real issues which are causing problems within the organization.

However, McGregor (1990:25) argues that the limitations of the human relations approach as embodied in Theory Y may be overcome as it aims to gain the greatest degree of integration of worker and organizational goals which is necessary for effective organizational performance. Whether this integration has been achieved in practice within social work organizations is debatable. However, social work management literature increasingly reflects writings advocating models based on the human relations perspective and managerial tendencies encompassing Theory Y principles and assumptions, for example, Austin (1989) who offers "Interactive Management", Peters and Austin (1986) who advocate for "Management by Wandering Around" and Edwards and Gummer (1988) who explore the application of Japanese, Swedish and Peters and Watermans' principles for organizational success.

In recognising the limitations of the Theory Y approach, the Japanese have developed a very different system of management. Ouchi's Theory Z (1981) is a move away from Theory Y possibly in an attempt to overcome the limitations thereof.

2.3.2. Ouchi's Theory Z

The Japanese models of management have created much interest in the management literature owing to the high levels of productivity and creativity generated within Japanese organizations. Theory Z is an example of a style which encompasses more aspects that the opposite of Taylorist principles. While McGregor restricts his managerial styles to polar extremes of assumptions about human nature, the

Japanese Theory Z environment management style and practice aims at teaching people to manage so that they may work together more effectively (Mullins 1988:241).

This approach may also be classified within the human relations school. Ouchi (1981:4) describes the characteristics of a Theory Z organization as:

- (i) long-term employment
- (ii) relatively slow process of evaluation and promotion
- (iii) training in company-specific skills and moderately specialized career paths
- (iv) implicit, informal control mechanisms supported by explicit, formal measures
- (v) participative decision-making by consensus
- (vi) collective decision-making but individual responsibility
- (vii) broad concern for the welfare of subordinates and co-workers as a natural part of a working relationship, and informal relationships among people.

The Theory Z management style therefore moves beyond Theory Y in that it is explicit about and committed to the notion of the worker as a highly-valued and respected participant integral to the production process. Workers are not viewed as dispensable or "incongruent" units which has to "fit into" organizations as with previous approaches. Instead the importance of each worker's contribution, responsibility and security is central to the proponents of Theory Z. This model also proposes a more transparent way of managing with decision-making by consensus being most indicative of this.

This Japanese style has pressurised many Western management theorists and practitioners to revisit their managerial approaches. The increasing prominence of the Japanese within the world economy may be one of the major factors leading to this.

2.3.2.1. Critique of Theory Z in Social Work

Like many Western for-profit organizations, social work organizations in the Western Cape operate on a different basis from Theory Z. The high turnover of social workers at organizations in South Africa is a case in point (McKendrick 1980:12), particularly since Theory Z organizations are characterised by long term employment. Social work organizations in South Africa cannot seem to keep their turnover rates down, nor is decision-making achieved through consensus in the majority of organizations. Bureaucratic organizational and managerial functioning are more characteristic of contemporary social work organizations. Smith (1979:27) has identified this as "bureaupathology" within social work, which is characterised by:

- (i) an exaggerated dependence upon regulations,
- (ii) an exaggerated impersonality in relations,
- (iii) an insistence on the petty rights and privilege of office, and
- (iv) a resistance to change.

Smith (1979:29) further states that bureaupathology is not confined to any particular personality type, and "is present in many areas of social work". In addition, social work organizations, like American businesses, are also characterized by "short-term employment, relatively frequent evaluations and promotions, specialized career paths, explicit control mechanisms, individual decision-making and responsibility, and segmented concerns over the welfare of subordinates and co-workers" (Ouchi 1981:48-49). This is starkly different to the Japanese model.

The Theory Z style of management, whilst being specific to Japanese culture, provides for significantly more investment in the individual worker and in worker security -

measures which on the long term could result in improved organizational functioning and which could enable better services and products.

Ouchi's Theory Z management style emphasizes the recognition that the worker is an integral and a developing part of the organization. Respect for workers' feelings and views through participative decision-making gives the impression that the organization is an organic entity which develops through the participation and development of all the individuals who are part thereof. Many Western organizations (and social work organizations in Cape Town function similarly), have largely failed to recognise the importance of the individual worker to the organization as a whole. These organizations function on the premise that any individual is dispensable. This, in contrast to the Japanese style, resembles a mechanistic system of management.

However, instituting a Theory Z model within social work organizations would not be entirely feasible. Smith and Doeing (1985:4-10) concur with this view and present the following reasons for this:

- (i) A change in organizational structure and culture would be required in order to facilitate open and honest communication between managers and workers. Organizations would need to move away from bureaucratic structures to a more egalitarian style of management which will entail considerable financial and emotional investment.
- (ii) The high turnover rates within social work organizations would hamper the implementation of Japanese principles.
- (iii) The supervisor-supervisee relationship which places authority and power within the hands of the supervisor, will result in the latter being placed in a vulnerable position with the implementation of Theory Z, thus presenting another constraining variable. According to Smith and Doeing (1985:10): "A key element of Theory Z is the emphasis on egalitarianism which implies that each person can apply discretion and can work autonomously without close supervision."

- (iv) The resistance to change within social work organizations is very high owing to traditional roles and hierarchy being based on education, academic degrees and experience.
- (v) A shift to this Japanese model would not merely entail an organization development plan, but would require fundamental changes within the total organizational philosophy. As stated by Smith and Doeing (1985:10): "Japanese management concepts are designed to be implemented in an organization where the total philosophy of the organization, and that of management itself, is open to total restructuring."

It is therefore evident that changes within organizations is severely limited by the social structure within which the organization operates (Miringoff 1980:198). The environment external to the organization thus significantly impinges upon the development of organizations and managerial practice. One theorist who has recognised this is Likert (1961) in the development of his model of managerial style.

2.3.3. Likert's Four Systems of Management

Likert (1961) makes an important observation with regard to the factors influencing the developments within the management literature and practice. He sees the social changes occurring in the Western world as dramatically impinging upon the practice of management (Likert 1961:1-3). These changes are listed by Pollard (1974:237) as follows:

- (i) "Increasing competition from an ever growing number of industrialised nations.
- (ii) Changes in people's ideas and backgrounds which make them less willing to accept pressure and close supervision.
- (iii) Greater individual freedom and initiative, leading to expectations that this will be carried over to the work situation.
- (iv) Higher educational levels in society in general and among the so-called working class in particular.

- (v) Greater concern in society generally about the increasingly recognised problem of mental health.
- (vi) Dissatisfaction on the part of a considerable number of managers with currently accepted ideas.
- (vii) More complex and larger business units."

It is within this context of change that he identified the need to develop the Human Relations school more extensively within the area of managerial styles and style effectiveness, based on the premise that "Of all the tasks of management, managing the human component is the central and most important task, because all else depends on how well it is done" (Likert 1967:1). He therefore proposes a model of four systems or styles of managing, System 4 of which encompasses a participatory style which he endorses as being the most effective.

Likert's (1967:14-23) four systems or styles of management are proposed as follows:

- SYSTEM 1 : Exploitative-authoritative
- SYSTEM 2 : Benevolent-authoritative
- SYSTEM 3 : Consultative
- SYSTEM 4 : Participative

System 1 is characterized by authoritative decision-making, very little teamwork or communication, control is lodged at the top of the hierarchy, and workers' motivation is maintained by threats.

System 2 is when leadership is condescending, control is exercised at various managerial levels, there is limited communication or teamwork, and motivation is based on a reward structure.

System 3 involves some trust in workers, there is a fair degree of teamwork and communication taking place vertically and horizontally, responsibility for achieving organizational goals are spread throughout the hierarchy, and motivation is also achieved by rewards.

System 4 involves trust and confidence in workers, participation is high in teamwork and communication, responsibility for achieving goals is widespread throughout all levels of the organization, and motivation is maintained on a reward system based on achievement and agreed-upon goals.

Likert's (1967:31) managerial style model is based on the assessment of eight organizational variables, namely:

- (i) leadership
- (ii) motivation
- (iii) communication
- (iv) interaction
- (v) decision-making
- (vi) goal-setting
- (vii) control
- (viii) performance

These key variables constitute his "profile of organizational characteristics" which are used in his Managerial Survey Instrument to assess the style of the manager according to the four systems. Studies of managerial styles undertaken by Likert (1967:46) showed that management practices within Systems 1 and 2 confirmed least productive organizations, and organizations which were most productive utilized management practices within Systems 3 and 4.

2.3.3.1. Critique of Likert's Model

The primary limitation of this model is that it presupposes that all managers should employ a participative style at all times since this is the most effect way of managing. This model therefore does not take account of possible organizational constraints which may not favour a participative approach, such as bureaucratic structures and policies.

The strength of the model appears to be the fact that it may be utilised to identify managerial styles in terms of the four systems proposed. However, the questionnaire (the Managerial Survey Instrument) which has been formulated for this purpose is relatively lengthy and requires substantial statistical analysis. Moreover, Likert's four models of managerial style is limited to these four styles only. The Managerial Survey Instrument does not, for example, identify a situational management style which is possible with the instruments based on the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid (1964).

2.3.3.2. Likert's Four Systems Applied in Social Work

Likert's model may be used successfully within social work organizations in order to establish the nature of management styles, as well as the style which workers would prefer. However, the social work management literature reflects relatively scant discussion of this approach, with few empirical research studies based upon the model. One study by Malka (1989:47-63) utilised the Likert model to identify

managerial styles within Israeli human service organizations. These results showed that actual management behaviour could be classified as being consultative, whereas the preferred style identified by social workers was System 4 or participative. This correlates with the findings by Likert (1961 and 1967:32-35) in the application of his model within organizations.

2.3.4. The Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid

From their studies of management, Blake and Mouton (1964) have developed a model of managerial style which is more comprehensive than that of Likert since it proposes five key styles and a range of "mixtures" of these theories. This model is based on the assumption that the central role of any manager is to achieve maximum results "through the productive utilization of people" (1964:ix). People and production are therefore the major components in the assessment of managerial style. The concern for production as well as the concern for people have been used for the construction of a grid which delineates the various management styles. Figure 2 below shows the Managerial Grid, with the five "pure" Grid theories or positions.

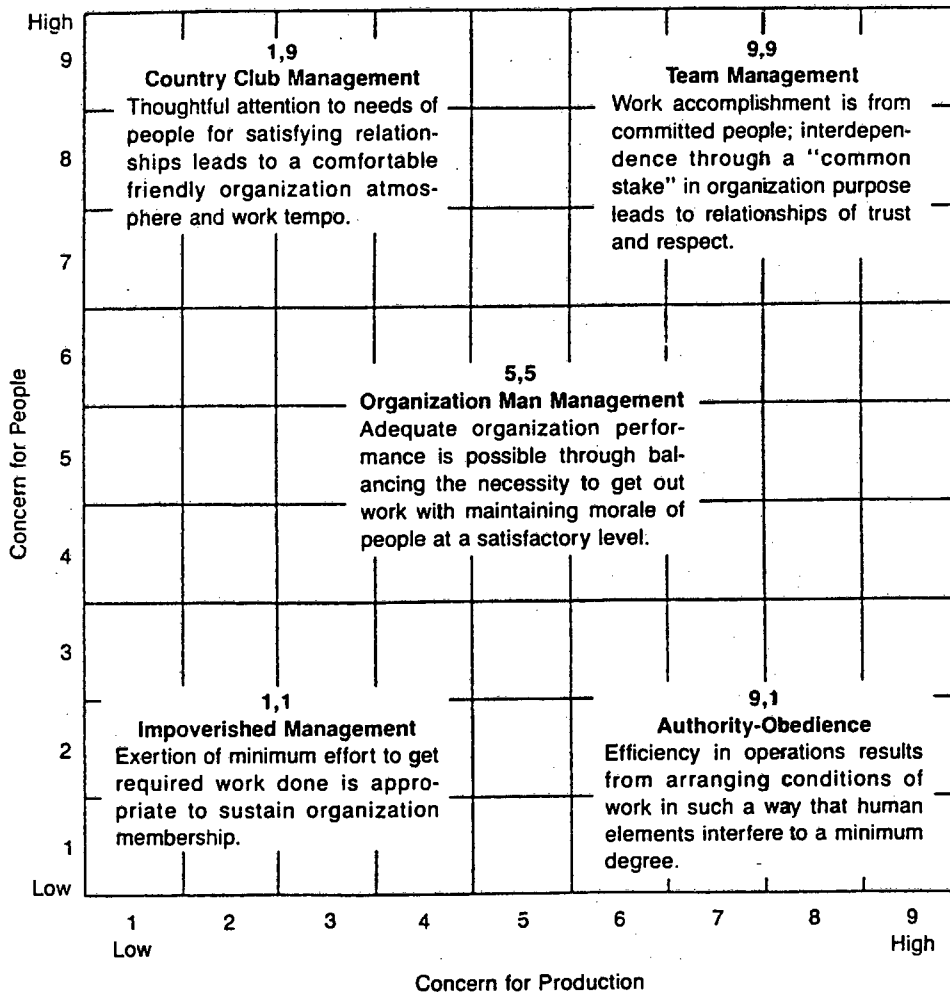


FIGURE 2: Blake and Moutons' Managerial Grid.

(Taken from Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. The Managerial Grid III, Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1985. p.12)

Each Grid style will be explained in greater detail in Chapter 4. However brief explanations are provided in the table below:

GRID POSITION AND STYLE	Concern for people	Concern for productivity	May also be termed*
1/1 or Impoverished management: Exertion of minimal effort to accomplish work tasks	Low	Low	Regulator
1/9 or Authority - Obedience: Emphasis on efficiency and in minimizing the interference of human elements in work accomplishment	Low	High	Taskmaster
9/1 or Country Club Management: Seeking to satisfy the needs of people and maintain friendly relations so that the climate and work temp is comfortable	High	Low	Comforter
5/5 or Organization-Man Management: Balancing the needs of people with the need to accomplish tasks, while keeping morale at a satisfactory level	Moderate	Moderate	Manipulator
9/9 or Team Management: Accomplishing work through the participation of people who hold a common stake in organizational purpose	High	High	Developer

Table 2: Explanation of the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid

*(*Terms used by the Style Parallax Model by Hall and Maritz [1990:7] which is based on the Blake and Mouton Grid, with the only difference being that the styles have been given more descriptive labels.)*

This model therefore not only draws a distinction between a scientific and human relations approach to management, but instead also takes account of the possibilities

where these approaches may be used in the extreme and to the detriment of the organization. For example, the 1/9 emphasis on people and the 9/1 emphasis on task accomplishment are managerial approaches which are equally undesirable even though the 1/9 approach may be categorized within the human relations model. Instead, the ideal is to place equal and maximum emphasis on people as well as production, that is, the 9/9 way of managing. Blake and Mouton's model is therefore a move away from a mere Scientific-Humanistic dichotomy in that it utilises orientations from both approaches, yet proposes an ideal style which emphasises maximum concern for, and integration of, both people and productivity.

The Managerial Grid is unique in that it does not measure the actual production output achieved by the manager. Rather, the words "concern for" are indicators of the "character and strength of assumptions present behind any given leadership style" (Blake and Mouton 1985:10). The premise of the Managerial Grid model is that assumptions guide behaviour and that depending on the accuracy of the assumptions made by the manager, the outcome may either result in effective or ineffective management. Not only do McGregor's (1984) Theory X and Theory Y assumptions as discussed above lend support to this argument, but Hall (1990a:9) also agrees that personal assumptions are central in guiding behaviour: "Managers select practices which, in their minds, best account for - compensate, capitalize upon, etc. - the characteristics of the people supervised *as the individual manager perceives them*." Blake and Mouton (1985:7) propose the Grid as being useful in enabling leaders to identify the assumptions they make as they work to achieve results with and through people. They therefore do not view their model as one which describes personality

types since human behaviour is not viewed as rigid and static. The Grid positions are instead regarded as describing systems of pressures influencing an individual to manage in a certain way. Blake and Mouton (1964:12) identify these pressures as arising from:

- (i) inside the manager [her-]himself such as personal values and beliefs as well as personal history,
- (ii) the immediate external situation which presents itself to the manager, and/or
- (iii) the characteristics of the organizational system including traditions, established practices, procedures, requirements and rules.

This model therefore does not presuppose that managerial style is exclusively influenced by the internal psychological processes of the individual. The influence of the environment, notably the organizational context, is also significant.

However, these theorists propose one managerial style which would be effective within any organizational context. Blake and Mouton (1985:8) base their argument upon organizational 'universals' which they argue are characteristic of all organizations, the effective management of which is the key to efficient productivity. These universal characteristics are listed as follows:

- (i) Organizational purpose(s):

Every organization has a purpose, whether it is to produce a profit, serve a military function or provide social work services. The productivity of each organization is therefore regarded as an indication of its purpose(s) (Blake and Mouton 1985:8). Productivity is thus one factor measured in the Managerial Grid.

(ii) People

All organizations have to be staffed by people, whether it be to organise the flow of work or to accomplish the work themselves. Organizations cannot exist without people, nor can it only consist of one person (Blake and Mouton 1985:9). This is another imperative and the second factor measured on the Grid.

(iii) Power (hierarchy)

The role differentiation within organizations leads to positions of varying power: those who supervise and those who are supervised. These power relations constitute the hierarchy of authority. Understanding the use of power and authority and the assumptions leading to this behaviour by those who control the activities and direction of the organization, is the foundation of understanding managerial leadership (Blake and Mouton 1984:9).

(iv) Organizational culture

Blake and Mouton (1984:9) identify organizational membership as salient within the workplace. The norms and values of each organization is a product and reflection of its culture. Schein (1985:9) has defined organizational culture as "a pattern of basic assumptions - invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration - that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as

the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems." Bargal and Schmid (1989:41) argue that the manager as a leader plays a major role in developing organizational culture. The latter is therefore of critical importance to managerial effectiveness in any organization.

The argument for one ideal and effective style is further strengthened by the results of a study by Hall (1990b:494-495) which shows that managers using the 9/9 style of management as favoured by Blake and Mouton are 92% competent. This is considerably higher than any of the other styles as illustrated in the table below:

STYLE	MANAGERIAL COMPETENCE
1/1	15%
9/1	50%
1/9	38%
5/5	54%
9/9	92%

TABLE 3: Style and Managerial Competence
(Adapted from Hall 1990b:494-495)

The Blake and Mouton model, as with Likert's Four Systems, has been used for the formulation of managerial style assessment instruments. Two of these instruments, the Styles of Management Inventory (Hall 1986) and the Management Appraisal Survey (Hall, Harvey and Williams 1986), will be used in this study. However, these instruments do not only identify the five major grid positions, but are also able to assess dominant style confusion, a lack of dominant style, as well as a range of

"mixed" Grid theories such as paternalism and opportunism (situational management). Mixed Grid theories are not an integration of two or more Grid styles but a simultaneous combination thereof. The three major "mixed" grid theories which will be reviewed here are: Paternalism/Maternalism, Opportunism and Facades.

(i) Paternalism/Maternalism

This style is a combination of 9,1 and 1,9 orientations (Authority-Obedience and Country Club management). It is characterised by managerial control under certain conditions, and concern for the worker under other circumstances. Blake and Mouton (1985:140) state that the basic assumption of the manager using this approach is: "I own [or am responsible] for you and want to help your career [much as if the other person were a son or daughter.] That's why I expect your loyalty as a matter of course."

The result of a combination of the Authority-Obedience and Country Club approaches is that workers are caught in a double-bind of feeling cared for, yet are fearful of transgressing the rules of the manager. This may negatively impact upon productivity as work will be achieved according to the standards prescribed by the manager which may be moderate or high, yet may remain well below that which the worker may be capable of. Since the manager tends to do the thinking for the worker and discourages worker autonomy, creativity and initiative is also quelled.

(b) Opportunism

This style is when all five Grid styles are used by the manager in an unpredictable manner. The manager tactically reacts to every situation for the sake of his/her own personal gain. The basic assumption of the opportunist is, according to Blake and Mouton (1985:148), "to get there first, and then you can clean up your act and project whatever image will make you look like a statesman, hero or strong leader." Opportunism may also be viewed as a situational management approach since the manager tends to "read" the situation before deciding upon the best manner in which to respond.

The consequences which an opportunist style would have is that the manager will only be interested in productivity if it contributes to his/her personal success. Productivity may therefore be high, but it may be contributing to individual rather than organizational achievement. The opportunist's prime motivation is to be on top and in the limelight (Blake and Mouton 1985:148).

(c) Facades

A facade is the false front which the manager portrays to obscure his/her true intentions. This style is a manipulative and deceptive approach, thus different from the characteristically genuine intentions of managers using the "pure" styles or one of the "mixed" Grid profiles such as paternalism/maternalism. Most often the "surface" style

appears as a 9/9 or 5/5 orientation and less frequently as 1/9 or 1/1, but seldom as 9/1 (Blake and Mouton 1985:156). The motivation or intention of the facadist is the major distinguishing factor between this style and an "authentic" style. For example, an authentic 9/1 oriented manager may be genuinely interested in increasing productivity whereas the interests of the facadist, on the other hand, are power, control and domination. Whilst this may seem similar to that of the opportunist, the difference is that the opportunist works to enhance his/her status to be at the top, whilst the facadist wants to control the person at the top (Blake and Mouton 1985:156).

According to Blake and Mouton (1985:157), social work organizations may be prone to this type of management since "working for social movements and institutions that are admired because they contribute to human dignity and to the reduction of human suffering may in fact be a facade." However, Blake and Mouton fail to provide an explanation of how a facade is assessed and the measuring instruments based on this model do not measure this specific profile.

However, the style which Blake and Mouton identify as being the most effective is the 9/9 or team management approach. This style integrates people and productivity concerns by achieving work through people, that is, it is a participatory management approach. Another significant characteristic of the 9/9 style is that its change orientation is implicitly morphogenetic. Morphogenetic change, according to Robb (1988:4) is when "the model of the organization held in view is questioned, [and] when, as a result of learning and development processes, a new model emerges and...new processes are instituted to achieve the objectives entailed by the new

model." Morphogenetic change therefore entails deliberate organizational structural change as a direct result of learning and as a means of improving organizational capacity and performance. Within the 9/9 style, morphogenesis is implicit in double-loop learning which is characteristic of the 9/9 manager (Blake and Mouton 1985:92). According to Argyris and Schon (1984:365), double-loop learning entails change(s) in organizational structure and/or modus operandi as a consequence of learning.

Yet another important feature of the 9/9 style is that it is an egalitarian approach to management. By encouraging managers to adhere to one style of 9/9 or team management as an ideal and effective way of functioning, individual prejudice such as racism may be reduced owing to (1) all workers having to be treated equally in order to realise productivity through teamwork, and (2) the manager is restricted from using other styles such as a situational approach which, as will be argued later in this chapter, tends to promote individual discrimination by the manager who is required to respond to situations according to his/her personal assessment thereof. The 9/9 style therefore appears as appropriate and desirable within the democratic context of South Africa.

However, the Blake and Mouton model also presents limitations. These are discussed below.

2.3.4.1. Critique of the Managerial Grid

The cardinal concern which many theorists and management practitioners hold with regard to the Blake and Mouton model is that one style (this being the 9/9 approach) is considered to be most effective and desirable across organizational contexts and circumstances. This premise presupposes that all managers are comfortable and capable of effectively utilising a 9/9 or team management approach. Russell, Lankford and Grinnell (1985:164) argue that the greatest difficulty in using a 9/9 approach is that the manager may not have the necessary skills and abilities. Moreover, in venerating one style as being the most effective, the model also indicates that managers should use a 9/9 approach irrespective of organizational and other constraining factors.

Pfeffer (1978:19) recognises this limitation which is generally implicit within the management style literature: "Analyses of leadership have frequently presumed that leadership style or leader behaviour was an independent variable that could be selected or influenced almost at will to conform to what research would find as the best leadership style." The development of the contingency or situational management school seem to be a response to this limitation. Contingency models propose that an effective managerial style has to be a function of environmental variables which need to be considered by the manager before responding. The contingency approach thus presupposes that the altering of environmental variables or factors necessitates a change in managerial style.

An additional area of critique is that the Grid does not incorporate new models of management style such as the learning management approach. Style identification is therefore limited to the possibilities as defined within the Grid, and not beyond its boundaries. While the learning management approach may be accommodated within the 9/9 style, the element of morphogenetic change within the learning management style is more explicit than with the 9/9 approach. The limitation of the 9/9 approach is that it is implicitly morphogenetic, whereas with the learning management style morphogenesis is explicit.

2.3.4.2. The Managerial Grid in Social Work

The Managerial Grid has been critically evaluated within the social work management literature. Austin (1989:27) argues that the Grid model has limited applicability within social work organizations since it focuses on styles and competencies exclusively related to intra-organizational processes. He further argues that human service organizations require managers who are able to liaise effectively with groups external to the organization in order to maintain the flow of resources. Whilst this criticism may seem valid, Austin does not take account of the fact that in order to ensure organizational survival and effectiveness, proficient internal management is necessary before financial and other resources for the organization may be justified. The survival of social work organizations very often depends on how effectively it is able to render services. Management is integral to this process so that intra-organizational managerial competencies of production/efficiency and teamwork/cohesion are crucial

to organizational development and effectiveness. An example of how internal effectiveness is essential for organizational performance is expressed in the words of Sugarman (1988:22) who states: "...the quality of caring for clients cannot be good if HSO [human service organization] managers do not care for their own staff." Therefore, intra-organizational processes are crucial in social work management, and managers who give priority to external contacts and resources as Austin (1989) suggests, may consequently be neglecting those roles and responsibilities which would ensure effective organizational performance.

Bamford (1982:177), on the other hand, positively evaluates the Blake and Mouton model in its application to social work settings. He argues that effective management in a social work context is the same as effective management in other organizational setting, that is, the 9/9 approach of the Managerial Grid. In this regard he states: "...by a combination of the people and performance orientations, the 9/9 manager of the managerial grid can be achieved who is able to reconcile systematic, goal-setting, decisive leadership with the human insights of social work" (Bamford 1982:178).

Bamford (1982:178) therefore does not merely discard the Managerial Grid as inapplicable or with limited use within social work. He embraces the concepts of the model as enabling the development of a better quality of management for the social services: "Achieving this combination [of people and performance] will not be easy. It will require a higher level of investment in management training, an intellectual discipline foreign to contemporary social work practice, and a strong professional leadership" (Bamford 1982:178).

The most important contribution which the Blake and Mouton model may make to the development of social work managers is that it may be successfully used to identify current managerial styles (Weinbach 1994:261) as manifested in the managers' behaviours, attitudes and philosophies about workers and work. The effectiveness of the managerial styles identified may thereby also be assessed. The positive consequence of these analyses is that managers may be encouraged to increasingly focus on their work behaviour and the assumptions which guide their actions. Bamford (1982:159) recognises that social work managers generally do not engage in a behavioural analysis of their performance. Yet, this is a crucial aspect of managerial work as noted by Wolk, Way and Bleeke (1982), and also by Hall (1990b:491) who lists one of the criteria for managerial competence as "the degree to which the manager attends to and emphasizes those constructive incentives most characteristic of mature adults, viz, belongingness, ego status, and actualization."

Another important area of practice where the Managerial Grid may be utilised is in examining the supervisor-supervisee styles within social work. Russell, Lankford and Grinnell (1985:150) note that this has been largely neglected as an focus of research, and they utilise the Blake and Mouton model in assessing managerial styles from the perspectives of both social workers and managers within a social work service setting. The results of their study shows a high proportion of the 1/1 management style which led the researchers to evaluate the organizational context and culture as these influenced the predominant styles identified. The Russell, Lankford and Grinnell (1985) study illustrates that the Blake and Mouton model has value in its application in social work as it enables managerial style to be studied more closely and thereby facilitates

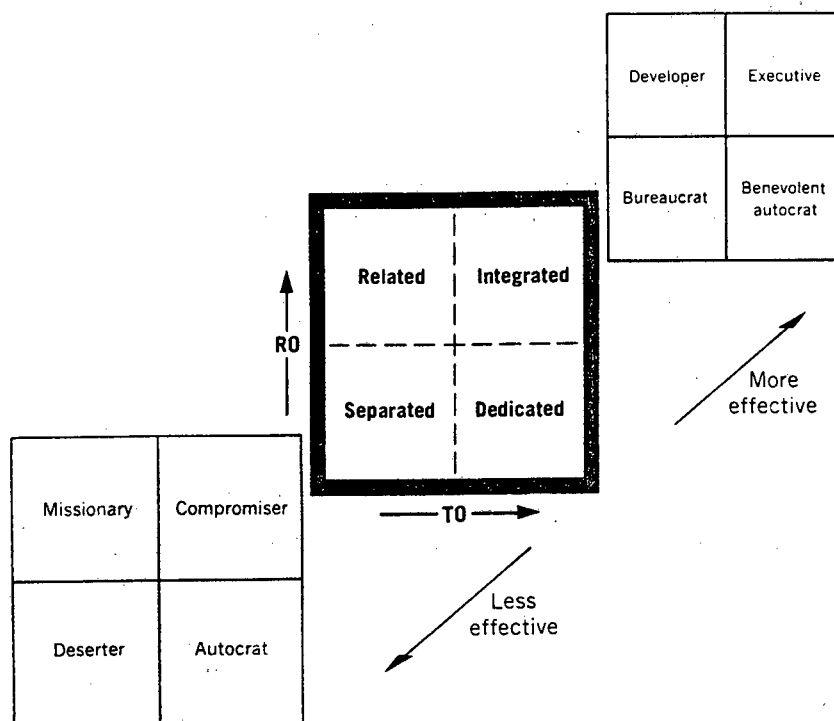
a critical examination of how managerial style and organizational factors such as culture mutually affect each other. However, the Managerial Grid model does not specifically identify those situational variables which contribute toward or influence a manager to use a particular management style. These factors become evident through an analysis of managerial style as will be illustrated in Chapter 4.

2.3.5. Reddin's 3-D Effectiveness Model

Reddin's model of management styles is a situational approach which is based on the premise that environmental factors determine the style which is most effective at a given point in time. The manager therefore has to adjust his/her style as the situation changes. Reddin's work follows from earlier theorists of situational management such as Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) who provide a leadership behaviour continuum which extends from a management-centred style to a subordinate-centred approach, and Fiedler (1967) who advocates for changes in management style according to specific organizational variables, namely, leader-member relations, task structure and position power. However, Reddin's model will be reviewed since it is based on the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid in an attempt at improving the Grid model by integrating situational management components.

Reddin (1970) builds upon the Blake and Mouton model by retaining the task and relationship measurement orientations, but introduces a third component - effectiveness. He proposes a model of management style based on four basic styles

which are effective within appropriate situations, but which are less effective within inappropriate conditions. The model therefore does not advocate for the effectiveness of only one style, but proposes four styles each of which are effective within given appropriate circumstances. The 3-D model illustrated below shows the four basic styles presented along an effectiveness dimension.



KEY: RO - Relationship Orientation
 TO - Task Orientation
 E - Effectiveness

FIGURE 2: Reddin's 3-D Model of Management Style
 (Taken from Reddin, W.J. Managerial Effectiveness, New York:McGraw-Hill, Inc. 1970, p.206)

It is therefore evident from this model that a style which is both high in task and relationship orientation may be effective in circumstances which warrant this approach (and called an executive), yet may be ineffective within a different situation (and termed a compromiser). This model therefore requires the manager to assess the situational factors before assuming an appropriate and hence more effective style. Reddin (1970:139) calls this situational sensitivity, and argues that this sensitivity is essential for effective managerial performance. In this respect he states: "A manager with a sensitivity to read a situation for what it actually contains, and the sensitivity to know what behaviour would actually constitute effectiveness in it, is more likely to be effective" (Reddin 1970:139). The specific situational elements which the manager needs to recognise and act upon within the organizational environment has been proposed by Reddin (1970:65) as the organization itself, co-workers, subordinates, his/her superiors and the technology used to achieve work objectives effectively.

2.3.5.1. Critique of Reddin's Model

This model is an attempt at providing alternatives to approaches such as the Managerial Grid which posits one effective style of managing. The 3-D analysis therefore proposes a range of styles which, depending on their "fit" in the situation, will determine their effectiveness. The first problem which arises from this model is that Scientific management or Theory X-based styles such as bureaucrat and benevolent autocrat are also submitted as being effective and applicable in particular situations. This in itself presents problems since Scientific management has been widely

regarded as being dehumanising and mechanistic, a consequence which Reddin does not mention.

Reddin's model is also based on the assumption that the manager has to "read" the situation before taking action. The exclusive reliance on the perception of the manager may lead to a chaotic style of management which is based on the whims of the manager and not necessarily on sound principles of worker involvement and consultation. The consequences of this type of managerial style is unpredictable behaviour which will most possibly result in worker dissatisfaction owing to the high probability that each worker may be treated differently according to the perception of the manager. Not only does this model thus lend itself to perpetuating personal prejudice on the part of the manager, but it may also entrench problems such as institutional and individual racism, particularly in South African organizations.

Moreover, the situational elements which Reddin proposes as being essential for the manager to consider before selecting an appropriate style are restricted to intra-organizational processes only. The impact of the larger social system is not recognised as being significant. This perpetuates the notion of the manager as being reactive to external forces such as politics and economics.

2.3.5.2. Reddin's Model in Social Work

Reddin's model has not been widely discussed in social work in comparison to other contingency approaches to management. The contingency model of Hersey and Blanchard (1982), for example, has been more critically and extensively examined within the social work management literature. Nevertheless, the 3-D model as applied to social work may result in a number of problems, the most crucial of which are:

- (i) *The application of Theory X-based styles which are viewed as effective.*

It is evident that social work organizations are generally characterised by bureaucratic controls (Rice 1973:20; Hall 1993:355). The recommendation and promotion of styles such as that of the bureaucrat and benevolent autocrat, may further entrench this type of organizational control, and actively discourage creativity and innovation. The indirect consequence of this may also be that the organization as a welfare service provider may be strengthened as a form of social control (Sarri 1982:20).

- (ii) *Requiring the manager to "read" situations may encourage and perpetuate prejudiced and racist action.*

The second limitation of the model relates to the possibility of encouraging prejudiced and racist actions by the manager which is very relevant in social work settings. Sarri (1982:25) recognises that institutional racism and sexism remain problematic within social work organizations. A management style which requires the manager to "read" situations and to adjust his/her behaviour accordingly will in all probability result in

these managers being more prone to perpetuating racist, sexist and other prejudiced attitudes and behaviours.

- (iii) *The virtual exclusive focus on internal organizational elements which need to be considered in style selection, appears to be done at the expense of recognising external factors such as politics.*

By requiring the manager to focus exclusively on intra-organizational processes in assessing style appropriateness, macro-issues such as politics, the economic climate, and so on do not seem to be taken into account when the strategic decision is made regarding the best style to use. Yet, situational variables which impact upon managerial style need not necessarily only emerge from the internal organizational context. For example, with the advent of democracy in South Africa, managers are being increasingly pressurised to engage in more participative management approaches. Should the manager using the 3-D model restrict him-/herself to the situational elements as proposed by Reddin, s/he may grow "out of touch" not only with the macro-changes taking place, but also with the concomitant demands on managers as a result of these changes.

2.3.6. The Situational Leadership Theory by Hersey and Blanchard

A situational management approach which has been more popular than Reddin's model within the management literature is that of Hersey and Blanchard (1982). These theorists also include a task and relationship orientation within their management style model, but introduce two variables which are proposed as determining style

effectiveness. These variables are the work and psychological maturity levels of the worker. The Situational Leadership model requires the manager to adapt his/her style to the task and psychological needs of the worker to ensure managerial effectiveness. For example, a worker perceived as being work "immature" will need a higher degree of structure, that is, a more task oriented managerial style. Conversely, a worker with a high level of work and psychological maturity will need less structure and managerial support. The psychological maturity of the worker is indicated by his/her motivation and willingness to co-operate as well as the degree of interest displayed in his/her work.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982:198-199) suggest that in assessing the work and psychological maturity levels of the worker, judgements have to be made by the manager by asking the worker direct questions or by observing the individual's present and past performance. The model is therefore based on the largely subjective perceptions of the manager and presumes that the manager's assumptions and assessments of workers are accurate. However, once an assessment is made, the manager is then required to adapt his/her management style in accordance with the prescriptions of the model. The figure below illustrates how the factors of work and psychological maturity levels determine the appropriate managerial style in terms of the task and relationship behaviour of the manager. The bell-curve illustrates the appropriate managerial style within each style quadrant for each given situation.

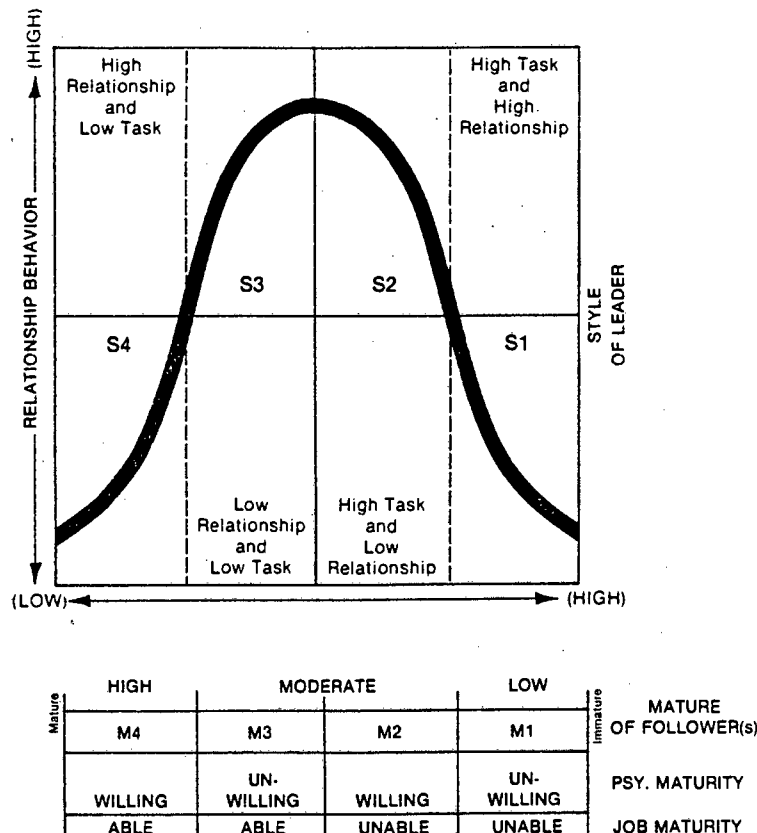


FIGURE 3: Situational Leadership Model

(Taken from Hersey, P., Blanchard, K.H. and Hambleton, R.K "Contracting for Leadership Style: A Process and Instrumentation for Building Effective Work Relationships" in Hersey, P. and Stinson J. (eds) Perspectives in Leadership Effectiveness, Athens Ohio University: The Centre for Leadership Studies, 1980.)

2.3.6.1. Critique of the Situational Leadership Model

The primary limitation of this model is that it merely considers the maturity level of the worker. The maturity of the manager is taken as given and constant. Yet, it is the maturity level of the manager which may be more significant since leadership

behaviour may profoundly affect organizational culture, workers and hence also organizational performance. For example, immature managers may not be able to implement this model since they may perceive the "mature" worker as a threat and hence "immature," consequently therefore using an ineffective managerial style. This will undoubtedly be detrimental to the worker's productivity and may even have a considerably negative impact upon organizational functioning.

As with Reddin's model, the Hersey and Blanchard approach shares the limitation of creating a chaotic management style as it encourages managers to "read" situations and people, and to make subjective and often counter-productive assumptions about the best way to manage. This model therefore also overtly encourages action based on emotion and prejudice. Instead of providing a sound guideline for managers, it literally grants them unlimited power to adopt a style based solely on their experiences and perceptions of a given situation. The inconsistency of style inherent within this model is an indicator of its ineffectiveness. In supporting this, Skidmore (1990:129) writes: "One mark of a poor leader is consistent inconsistency."

2.3.6.2. The Situational Leadership Model in Social Work

The situational leadership model may appear to be appropriate for social work managers who are presumably capable of assessing or diagnosing human systems. However, empirical evidence suggests that the model is not effective within social work settings. A study undertaken by York and Hastings (1985:44) which utilized the

Situational Leadership model, indicates that a contingency model of social work management is not supported by the research results. In comparing the relationship of one dimension of worker maturity to the worker's perception of the manager's task and relationship orientations, the results of the York and Hastings study fail to support the proposition that managers should increase their relationship behaviour and lower their task orientation in response to an increase in worker maturity (York and Hastings 1985:45).

Moreover, in another empirical study conducted by Packard (1993) which assessed the perceptions of social workers and managers regarding participatory decision-making, the results indicate that managers resisted changing their styles to a more participative approach in accordance with the perceived maturity of the worker. That is, whilst workers were viewed by managers as being capable of greater inclusion within decision-making, there was no adjustment in terms of managerial style since managers simply would not allow worker participation (Packard 1993:63). It is thus evident from Packard's study, that social work managers may prefer not to change their leadership orientation irrespective of a perceived increase in worker maturity. This is a feature empirically identified specifically with social work managers, but may nevertheless occur in other organizational types as well. Therefore, the potential of manipulation by the manager using a contingency approach is high and the research by Packard (1993) illustrates that managers in social work may be manipulative. This seems to indicate that a situational approach is largely inappropriate for social work management.

2.3.7. The Competing Values Framework

This model of organizational analysis is founded on the premise that organizational life is better understood from a multi-dimensional frame of reference. Quinn (1990:26) argues that a counter-schismogenic orientation is needed in order to accommodate opposing, yet complementary organizational values. Schismogenesis refers to arguments or perspectives whereby contradictions and paradoxes are denied, producing a unidimensional mind set whereby one of two opposing, yet connected, values is chosen above the other (Quinn 1990:26). The Interactive Leadership approach is therefore an attempt at enabling a greater understanding and mastery of the contradictions of organizational life. The model also attempts to integrate the Scientific and Humanistic orientations of previous management approaches, and to move beyond this by utilising a multivariate contingency approach.

The Competing Values model is an analytic framework which represents two sets of competing organizational values, namely, centralization-decentralization (or stability/control versus change/flexibility) along a vertical axis, and internal-external focus along a horizontal axis. Figure 4 below illustrates this model:

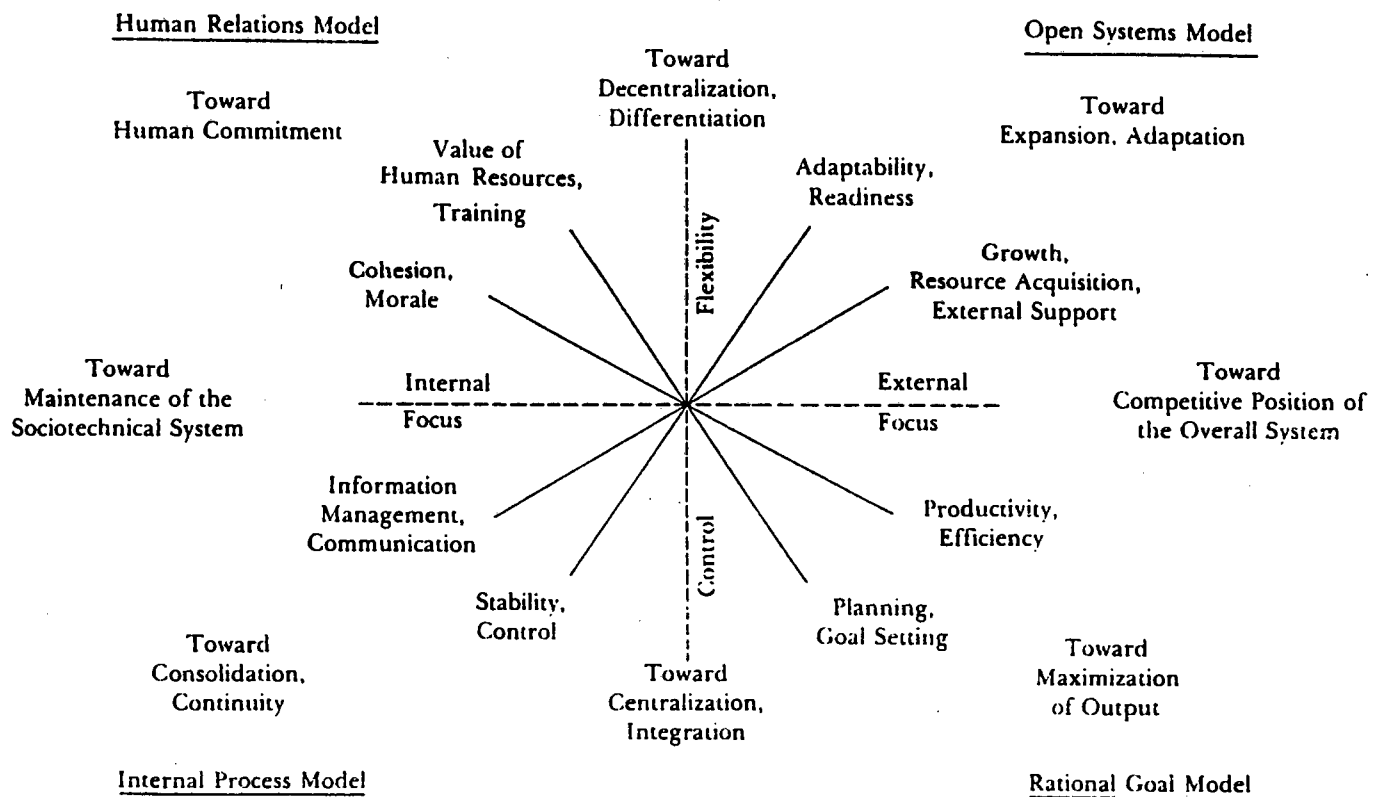


FIGURE 4: Competing Values Framework of Leadership Roles
 (Taken from Quinn, R.E. *Beyond Rational Management: Mastering the Paradoxes and Competing Demands of High Performance*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1988)

From the figure above it is evident that the two dimensions in combination identify four areas of organizational functioning which, according to Quinn (1990:38-41), may be presented by the following models of operation:

- (i) Rational Goal model or the firm, emphasises planning and goal-setting to achieve efficient maximization of output.
- (ii) Human Relations model or the team, aims at developing human resources with an emphasis on cohesion and morale.
- (iii) Internal Process model or the hierarchy, uses information management to organize, control and stabilise production processes or service delivery.
- (iv) Open Systems model or the adhocracy, enables growth, resource acquisition and adaptation to the environment through flexibility and creativity.

The role and style of the manager changes for each model as outlined in the table as follows:

MODEL	MANAGERIAL ROLE	MANAGEMENT STYLE
Rational Goal	Director, producer	Directive, goal-oriented
Human Relations	Group facilitator	Concerned, supportive
Internal Process	Co-ordinator	Conservative, cautious
Open Systems	Innovator, broker	Inventive, risk-taking

TABLE 5: Organizational model, managerial role and managerial style according to the Competing Values Model
(Adapted from Quinn 1988)

Whilst the Competing Values framework postulates different organizational models within opposing quadrants, this does not imply that these models are mutually exclusive. On the contrary, these models are viewed as co-existing, or used in combination to describe organizational interaction patterns even though they may appear contradictory. For example, an effective organization may be described as being both cohesive (Human Relations model) and productive (Rational Goal model), or stable (Internal Process model) and flexible (Open Systems model) (Rohrbaugh 1983:269). Owing to these apparent descriptive contradictions, Quinn and Hall (1983:295) propose a theory of congruence whereby the maximum degree of fit may

be achieved among the following factors with minimal conflict: environmental conditions, organizational form and management style. The table below illustrates this proposal for congruence:

Environmental Conditions	Organizational Form	MANAGEMENT STYLE
High uncertainty High intensity	Open Systems (Adhocracy)	Inventive, risk-taking
High intensity Low uncertainty	Rational Goal (Firm)	Directive, goal-oriented
Low uncertainty Low intensity	Internal Process (Hierarchy)	Conservative, cautious
Low Intensity High uncertainty	Human Relations (Team)	Concerned, supportive

TABLE 6: A Multilevel Theory of Congruence.
(Adapted from Quinn and Hall 1983:296)

From the above table it is evident that as uncertainty increases, managerial styles are less structured and less directive. Conversely, as uncertainty decreases, managerial styles are more structured, directive and task-oriented. However, Quinn does not elaborate whether the managerial styles appropriate for varying organizational models may be used in combination according to the seemingly contradictory nature of organizational form. For example, with the stable yet flexible organization, the authors do not clarify whether managerial style should be conservative in addition to inventive and risk-taking.

2.3.7.1. Critique of the Competing Values Model

The styles as outlined in the Interactive Leadership Model do not implicitly involve a critical analysis of the organizational models, nor therefore does it advocate for a morphogenetic approach to managing. Rather, managerial styles need to change according to perceived circumstances and organizational models. The consequences of this may be adverse since the manager's assessment may be inaccurate and/or s/he may not be capable of assuming all the roles and styles as depicted within the Competing Values framework. Moreover, the latter is a relatively complex model encompassing a multi-faceted analysis of organizational functioning. This may present difficulties to managers who prefer more simpler approaches. Nevertheless, those managers who are willing to embrace the model, may find that "juggling" styles according to perceived organizational functioning may be mentally strenuous and exhausting.

Furthermore, whilst the Competing Values framework may be a comprehensive framework within which to analyze the diverse and often contradictory nature of organizational functioning, it does not necessarily form a sound basis from which managerial style may be determined. The changing nature of organizational functioning may not necessarily require a change in managerial orientation. For example, a managerial style characterised by participation may be equally effective within the Rational Goal model of a firm as well as within the parameters of an Open Systems model of an adhocracy. However, the Competing Values framework requires an adjustment by the manager to change styles from being inventive or risk-taking as

needed by the Open Systems model to one of being directive and goal-oriented which is expected for the Rational Goal model.

Moreover, in positing that managerial style is predominantly contingent upon the prevailing organizational model(s), the Competing Values approach presents an additional limitation. The prescription of appropriate management styles for each organizational model seems to indicate that these styles are directed primarily at maintaining that model, and not at critically evaluating or changing organizational form and functioning. This model of leadership style may therefore be a conservative approach to maintaining existing organizational systems, without encouraging the manager to actively engage in innovation or change efforts. For example, organizations which may be considered to conform to the Rational Goal model where the appropriate managerial style is directive and goal-oriented, may result in the manager adhering to this style without considering alternative, more innovative ways of managing. It may therefore be concluded that possibly with the exception of the Open Systems model which requires an innovative, change-oriented management style, the other management styles forming part of the repertoire of this model are seemingly morphostatic in orientation, that is, geared towards the maintenance of characteristic organizational structures (Baumgartner et al 1976:215).

2.3.7.2. The Competing Values Model in Social Work

Quinn (1990:128-133) provides a simple method of enabling practitioners to assess their own managerial orientations within each quadrant of his model. The assessments by workers may be also achieved using the same method so that a comparative analysis may be made. Social work managers may therefore be able to use this model in order to assess their own styles.

Austin (1989) has used the model as a basis from which he has developed an Interactive Leadership style for social work managers which is discussed later in this chapter. Gummer (1987:7) has argued for the application of the Competing Values approach as an integrated framework in ordering the content of management curricula for social work. In this regard he states: "Each of the skills in the quadrants may be examined to determine the managerial traits and behaviours inherent in that set of skills and decisions can be made about the most effective strategies for enabling students to acquire those skills" (Gummer 1987:7-9). Gummer (1987:12) further argues that the framework consciously enables managers or students to address the value choices involved in managerial work. However, he does not specify whether the morphostatic orientation of the model is a limitation in this regard.

2.3.8. Transformational or Learning Management

In moving beyond the existing theories and models on managerial style, the literature increasingly reflects alternative innovative models that are more effective and creative. Previous models as reviewed above have resulted in substantial development particularly towards improving managerial performance and organizational effectiveness. However, these models do not encompass a manifest element of facilitating organization transformation as a primary objective. Whilst organizational innovation and change has been implicit in the 9/9 orientation of the Managerial Grid, it is not specifically emphasised. The current trend in managerial thought is taking cognisance of this aspect or role of management which has been neglected to a great extent. The manager as an active change agent, proactively intervening within the organizational milieu to effect better performance by workers and the organization as a whole, is increasingly being advocated in the management literature. In particular, protagonists of organizational learning, have motivated for managers to assume a learning style which encompasses morphogenesis as a fundamental component.

The concept of the learning organization has highlighted the notion of the "learning executive or manager". A definition of a learning organization has been provided by Pedler and Boydell (1988:3) who state that it is "an organization which facilitates the learning of all its members and continually transforms itself." The most significant factor within this definition is transformation or change, specifically the facilitation of change within organizational structures as a direct result of learning in order to develop more effective organizational functioning. Argyris and Schon (1984:365) has

identified specific organizational learning processes: single-loop, double-loop and deuterio-learning. Single-loop learning entails trial-and-error practices which leaves the structural and environmental factors of the organization intact. Double-loop learning consists not only of a change in organizational norms, but also a restructuring of the strategies and assumptions associated with those norms. Deuterio-learning entails examining previous contexts of learning "each time [one] learns to deal with a larger class of episodes" (Argyris 1984:368).

Both double-loop and deuterio-learning are described by Mitroff (1978:141-142) in his description of the learning manager:

- (i) S/he innovates by reflecting and then creating original response patterns.
- (ii) S/he views the variables and dimensions of a situation from at least two independent frames of reference, one of which is unique to the situation.
- (iii) The learning manager tests several alternatives within multiple frames of reference
- (iv) S/he demonstrates a willingness to modify, even destroy, some central aspects of the organization's boundaries and patterns of relations so that new ones can be constructed
- (v) S/he engages in active learning through controlled activity, experiments, and otherwise pursues data that are meaningful within multiple frames of reference which can be used to construct new and useful relationships, showing a concern for hypothesis generation.
- (vi) The learning manager inevitably innovates by delving into the unconscious, the irrational and the humorous to gain new meaning and perspective.

The manager as change agent is therefore emphasised under the approach of learning management. The aim of the learning manager is predominantly to use forms of learning such as double-loop and deuterio in order to ensure organizational renewal at a continual pace and thereby to increase organizational effectiveness. This new style of leadership therefore involves not only a reaction to problems, but a critical evaluation of problems with a view to changing the root causes thereof, even though

this would involve changing organizational structures and traditional modus operandi. The 9/9 managerial style by Blake and Mouton also emphasises learning through identifying the causes of the problem: "Through problem identification, critique and follow-up action, the work situation becomes a learning situation, per excellence" (Blake and Mouton 1964:149). However, the 9/9 approach does not explicitly require the manager to initiate organizational change initiatives. The unique characteristic of learning management is therefore that it is explicitly morphogenetic in orientation, that is, directed at initiating organization structural change.

The manager as an active learner and change agent has the responsibility in encouraging workers to engage in the same process of organizational learning and change. The learning manager therefore has the responsibility to establish a "learning organizational culture" which will result in the continual evaluation and improvement in worker and organizational performance.

2.3.8.1. Critique of Transformational/Learning Management

The theory on learning and transformational management is still in its infancy since there is at present relatively limited literature on the subject, especially in South Africa. However, the approach has been encouraged by a wide range of organizational participants who believe that it holds considerable potential as a more proactive way of managing, for example, a prominent South African business consultant has stated that: "This old style corporate hero-leader will give way to a new style of manager who

knows how to give employees meaningful participation in a learning type organization" (L. Van Der Merwe, Director of the Centre for Innovative Leadership and Lecturer at Wits Business School: Sowetan 1991).

Since learning management has not been extensively developed, the specific managerial behaviours associated with this model have not been identified. It may, however, be assumed that a learning management style may be used as an extension of existing models, such as with Blake and Mouton's 9/9 style which is also change-oriented albeit to a lesser degree.

Moreover, the learning management model may not be appropriate within sharply hierarchical organizations where a morphogenetic oriented style may be in conflict with organizational policies and culture. Bureaucratic hierarchies would tend to promote managerial styles which are morphostatic in orientation. The Competing Values model by Quinn (1990:37) proposes that the appropriate management style for hierarchies should be conservative and cautious in nature, emphasising standardization and the perpetuation of the status quo. Since it has already been argued that social work organizations closely resemble the characteristics of a bureaucracy, it may thus be envisaged that the learning management style may be difficult to assume within social work organizations.

2.3.8.2. Transformational/Learning Management in Social Work

The concept of change has become central to emerging theories of managerial leadership. Owing to changing environmental conditions and the need to increase the quality of service provision in an effective and proactive manner, social work organizational theorists have started to explore alternative managerial styles as an essential component of strategies for organizational change and development. In this respect, Hasenfeld (1989:1) ascribes considerable importance to the need for change within social work organizations and advocates for a leadership style which is "transformational". He argues that shrinking resources and the challenges of present circumstances require a revolutionary approach (Hasenfeld 1989:1). Whilst Hasenfeld does not fully outline the elements of this new style, he alludes to certain roles which the new leadership would have to perform within a context of change: "Facing a rapidly changing environment, social services are forced to shed old and often dysfunctional organizational and administrative patterns, and to adopt new organizational forms to ensure their survival and effectiveness" (Hasenfeld 1989:1). Implicit within this statement is the notion that social work managers need to be change agents, actively facilitating changes within the internal processes and structures of the organization in order to gain more effective organizational performance. This view is endorsed by Egan (1985:204) who writes: "Transformational leaders are shapers of values, creators, interpreters of institutional purpose, exemplars, makers of meanings, pathfinders, and moulders of organizational cultures. They are persistent and consistent." The transformational management approach may therefore be viewed as being a proactive management style as identified by Hasenfeld

and English (1990:155) since the role of the manager as a change agent is also emphasised under this style. The proactive manager, according to Hasenfeld and English (1990:155), attempts to influence the external environment of the organization and, in addition to being an initiator and innovator, is also willing to engage in high risk action.

Hasenfeld's (1989) notion of transformational leadership and the learning management approach therefore appear to coincide. Hasenfeld (1989) is thus following in the thinking of Mitroff (1978) and Argyris and Schon (1984) in looking towards learning and transformation as the key to increased managerial capability. Given the fact that the scenario of rapid change as described by Hasenfeld above is very similar to present day South Africa, an alternative managerial style for South African social work management could very well lie within the parameters of transformational leadership or learning management which could be emphasised within the 9/9 management style since this approach already incorporates an implicit morphogenetic or organizational transformation component.

2.4. Management Styles in the Social Work Literature

The social work management literature has examined management styles utilising models predominantly developed within the business sector as is evident in the review of the Scientific and Humanistic paradigms above. Management style models

developed especially for social work or by social work writers are not profuse. This may be owing to the fact that there is a lack of "theory-building" around issues of managerial style specifically in the social work literature. Models of managerial style in social work consequently tend to be largely underdeveloped and "isolated". However, three models will be reviewed which have been especially proposed for use by social work managers, namely, Berg's model of leadership style, Austin's interactive management approach and Kotin and Sharafs' loose-tight management typology. These models argue for a situational management style, requiring the manager to assess the intra-organizational and/or the extra-organizational context before engaging an appropriate and effective style.

2.4.1. Berg's Model of Leadership Style

Berg's (1985) model of management style for social work is based on the premise that social work organizations are distinct from other organizational types, and hence require a different management orientation. The distinctiveness of social work organizations has been discussed by Hasenfeld (1983:7-11) and Weiner (1982:7), but the specific differential elements addressed by Berg's model are:

- (i) The identification by social work managers with a set of professional values and beliefs which influence their perceptions of the organization and its purposes. Berg (1985:144) assumes that managers who show a high level of professional identification will tend to be more responsive to professional interests and

concerns and will therefore place greater emphasis on those dimensions of organizational activity which reflect these concerns.

- (ii) The social work manager is required to exert influence within the organization's internal as well as external environment which, according to Berg (1985:143), determines the degree to which the manager is reactive or proactive. The ability by the manager to influence and shape the internal and external organizational environment is a key feature of the proactive leadership style as advocated by Hasenfeld and English (1990:155). However, Weiner (1982:7) specifically acknowledges the distinctiveness of social work management in focusing on the external environment when he states: "The natural setting for human services institutions is interorganizational in nature."

Berg's model of leadership style therefore indicates the degree of professional identification of the manager since this factor is significant in how s/he perceives the organization and its purposes, as well as the degree to which the manager is proactive or reactive since he argues that a proactive style is not appropriate within all organizational settings (Berg 1985:144). Figure 5 below illustrates the model and the styles identified.

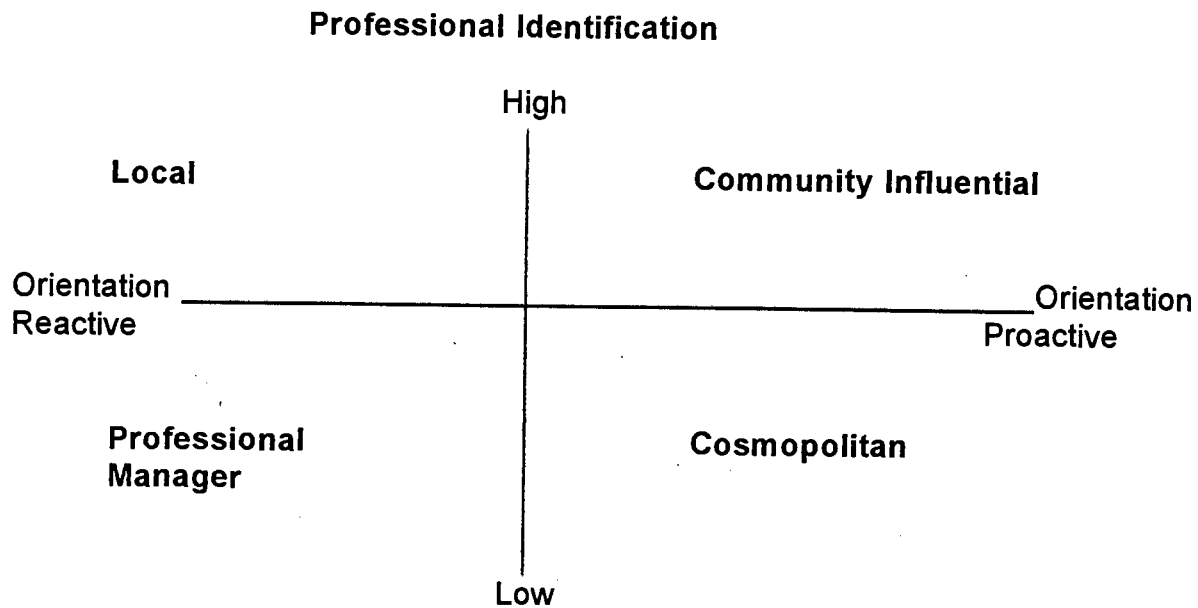


FIGURE 5 : Berg's Dimensions of Leadership and Leadership Style
 (Taken from Berg, W.E. "Evolution of Leadership Style in Social Agencies: A Theoretical Analysis" in Slavin, S. An Introduction to Human Services Management. London: The Haworth Press, 1985, p.145)

A concise analysis of the roles within this model is submitted by Edwards and Gummer (1988:7-8) as follows:

- (i) The local manager is concerned with the socio-emotive needs of workers, tends to adhere to organizational norms and focuses on its internal dynamics and operations.
- (ii) Cosmopolitan managers are task-oriented, focusing on relationships external to the organization. They have minimal commitment to the agency's norms as their major concern is with the attainment of goals.
- (iii) The professional manager is also task-oriented, but instead focuses on intra-organizational operations. Whilst identifying with external groups of professional managers, there is also a minimal commitment to agency norms, but more concern for operational efficiency.
- (iv) Community managers are concerned with the socio-emotive needs of workers, but their commitment to agency norms are mixed since they do not prescribe to idiosyncratic agency procedures. They also identify with external professional groups and concentrate on goal achievement. Most of their time is spent outside the organization, focusing on relationships with local/national professional groups.

Berg (1985:148) advocates for a preferred management style as embodied within the "cosmopolitan" manager since he anticipates that within the foreseeable future a management style would be needed which de-emphasises professional values and is increasingly capable of monitoring and influencing the external environment. However, he also postulates that different styles are needed within different levels of the organization. Berg (1985:147) contends that "local" managers are required in first-line management positions since they are responsible for the supervisory aspects of organizational functioning, whereas middle managers require a "professional," task-oriented approach since they are primarily concerned with goal attainment.

2.4.1.1. Critique of Berg's Model

According to Edwards and Gummer (1988:8-9), Berg's model is a reflection of the current belief that "...management is a multifaceted activity that depends on individual, organizational, and environmental factors for the particular form it takes." In viewing management as an idiosyncratic process dependent mainly upon environmental variables, the model may be viewed as a situational approach the problems of which have already been discussed in this chapter. Moreover, it fails to take important theoretical and practical issues into account which has a significant effect on the nature of management and managerial style. One of these issues is managerial philosophy. The model provides no indicators as to whether a particular style is underpinned by assumptions of Theory X and/or Theory Y, the emphasis the manager places on participatory decision-making, and so on. Whilst Berg favours the style of

the cosmopolitan manager, he does not present a convincing argument for its effectiveness and competency. Moreover, he presents no empirical evidence to support the promotion or recommendation of the cosmopolitan management style. However, an empirical study by Smith (1984:612) supported Berg's contention that different levels of management within the organizational hierarchy require different management styles.

Whilst this model attempts to provide a distinctive approach for social work management, it however remains underdeveloped primarily since Berg fails to indicate the means by which managers or other organizational participants may assess managerial style in terms of this approach.

2.4.2. The Interactive Leadership Style

Austin's (1989) Interactive Leadership model which he proposes as being relevant for social work management is based on the Competing Values framework of organization and managerial roles as proposed by Quinn (1988). The Interactive Leadership approach encompasses two key components: firstly a pattern of continuous, active and personal involvement with organizational participants, and secondly, a focus on the total organization and its context, that is, a systems management approach (Austin 1989:28). The strength of this model, according to Austin (1989:28) is that it involves a balance between attention to service effectiveness, and the survival and development of the organization by enabling the manager to develop an inclusive

focus of all the organizational functions as depicted in the Competing Values framework. The manager therefore gains a better understanding of the tensions which exist within the organization, for example, when socio-political forces impact upon the goals of the organization in such a manner that they are inconsistent with the preferences of workers (Austin 1989:30).

Briefly, Austin's Interactive Leadership model emphasises the following:

- (i) Face-to-face contact with organizational participants (Austin 1989:28), highlighting the need for interpersonal skill competency by the manager.
- (ii) The retaining of a professional identity by the manager whilst at the same time allowing other professional staff to carry major responsibilities for leadership (Austin 1989:29).
- (iii) An understanding by the manager of the functioning and tensions among the various parts of the organization, and the need to balance these "parts" (Austin 1989:30). This is especially necessary in the maintenance and development of the organization. The manager therefore has to be cognitively aware of how his/her roles and how styles need to change in accordance with organizational requirements.
- (iv) The Competing Values model forms an important analytical tool for the Interactive manager who needs to understand the complex nature of organizational functioning as depicted in this model.

Austin (1989:15) reflects the belief that there is no exclusively effective management style. His Interactive Leadership approach model encompasses the styles as proposed within the Competing Values framework as described earlier. However, Austin does not elaborate on whether a singular or a combination of styles as depicted within the Competing Values framework has to vary according to situational pressures and demands. In addition, Austin fails to outline the possible external environmental variables, if any, which would affect the selection of the appropriate managerial style(s) specifically within social work.

2.4.2.1. Critique of the Interactive Leadership Style

Since this approach is based almost wholly on the Competing Values Framework, it holds the same limitations in being a situational model of management. However, additional limitations are evident in that the Interactive Leadership Style does not appear not to be fully developed for social work since a number of crucial elements are lacking:

- (i) A definite description of a crucial component of style, namely, worker and consumer participation.
- (ii) An outline of the specific variables within social work which may be impacting upon and influencing management style and which the manager needs to consider before selecting an appropriate style.
- (iii) An indication of the degree of organization change orientation (morphogenesis) or systems maintenance (morphostasis).

Possibly owing to the limitation of not being fully developed, this model has not been applied within the social work literature reviewed. It would therefore be premature to consider its application within social work practice owing to the fact that it has not been fully developed, nor extensively scrutinised. However, the significance which it does hold is that it is a positive indication that social work writers are seriously exploring alternatives to current ways of managing. This process is crucial since social work as a social science discipline is potentially able to contribute significantly to the management literature, particularly since the behavioural profiles of managers are increasingly being emphasised as crucial in managerial and style effectiveness.

2.4.3. Kotin and Sharafs' Loose-Tight Management Style Typology

Kotin and Sharaf (1985:173) identify two contrasting types of management styles: a tight style which emphasises hierarchical decision-making and communication, and a loose style which is characterised by flexibility and less structured communication and positions of authority. The tight style appears to be authoritative and bureaucratic in nature, and share elements with the 1/1 impoverished management style as identified by the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid (1964). Kotin and Sharaf (1985:173) outline the elements of the tight style as follows:

- (i) "clear-cut delegation of authority and responsibility,
- (ii) an orderly and hierarchical chain of command through which communication flows upward and downward, without skipping levels,
- (iii) a reliance on formal communications - for example, regular meetings, reports, printed forms,
- (iv) formal expression of power - for example, hearings, written notification of promotions and dismissals,
- (v) reliance on explicit, written rules, or, in their absence, on tradition."

The loose style is described as implying the following (Kotin and Sharaf 1985:173-174):

- (i) "absence, in many areas, of clearly designated authority and responsibility,
- (ii) considerable tolerance of role ambiguity and role diffusion,
- (iii) frequent bypassing of the chain of command, both in communication and in authority,
- (iv) informal communications
- (v) informal exercise of power,
- (vi) relatively little reliance on rules and tradition."

The loose style therefore appears to be laissez faire and seems to promote interaction and creativity. However, the style also presents as being chaotic, that is, there is not only a lack of clear direction, but also uncertainty regarding whether power is used

implicitly or overtly, and whether communication and decision-making involves those that are directly affected. Kotin and Sharaf (1985:174-175) have recognised the strengths of the loose style as being the stimulation of creativity and innovation, and the limitations as being disorderliness, ambiguity and competitiveness.

However, these authors do not advocate for any particular style since they perceive both models as having advantages and disadvantages (Kotin and Sharaf 1985:181). Instead they argue for a "fit" between management style and organizational needs at a given time (Kotin and Sharaf 1985:183). They therefore appear to be advocating for changes in style according to the manager's perceptions of the organization's needs. This is essentially therefore a situational approach to management.

2.4.3.1. Critique of Kotin and Sharafs' Typology

Kotin and Sharaf do not present a very coherent analysis of managerial style since the tight and loose models which they have identified appear to be polar extremes, between which a number of alternatives may exist. However, the model is able to effectively illustrate the problems of extreme forms of mechanistic and organic patterns of organizational functioning. Its applicability within social work is limited for the following reasons:

- (i) The typology shares the shortcomings in same regard as the Interactive Leadership approach in that it needs to be further developed.
- (ii) Kotin and Sharaf present no means by which a manager may assess whether s/he adheres to a loose or a tight style.

- (iii) The descriptions of the loose and tight styles do not include elements such as orientation to people, participation, change, and so on.
- (iv) Kotin and Sharaf do not specify within which context, the different styles are appropriate and they acknowledge that: "The relationship between personality, social structure, and executive functioning to a great extent remains to be explored" (Kotin and Sharaf 1985:183).

2.5. Synopsis

The classical management approach as depicted within the Scientific Management school of Taylorism proposes a management style which emphasises task accomplishment through stringent authoritarian control. In contrast, the Human Relations school advocates a range of style models which seek to balance and integrate task accomplishment with worker needs. However, within the Human Relations school, two perspectives regarding managerial style emerge:

- (i) Those which advocate for a situational or contingency approach such as Reddin's 3-D model (1970), Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (1982), Quinn's Competing Values Paradigm (1988), Berg's Leadership Model (1985), the Interaction Leadership Style by Austin (1989) and Kotin and Sharaf's Typology (1985).
- (ii) Those models which propose one style as being effective across organizational types and contexts, such as McGregor's Theory Y (1984), Ouchi's Theory Z

(1981), Likert's System 4 (1961 and 1967), Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1964 and 1985), and the learning or transformational management style as advocated by Mitroff (1978) and Hasenfeld (1989).

A crucial question which thus emerges is whether a situational approach to managing is more effective than one style which is proposed as being effective despite environmental variables. It has been argued in this chapter that the limitations of the situational approach lies in the power which it gives the manager to "read" or assess situations before an appropriate style is selected. It is possible that this process of selection may be influenced by the manager's own needs, attitudes, beliefs and values. This could result in the manager acting in self-interest as opposed to collective or organizational needs. Another consequence may also be that sexism, racism and other forms of prejudice are indirectly encouraged and perpetuated by a situational style of management.

The perspective encompassing one style as being appropriate within all organizations has been favoured since the limitations of the situational approach would therefore be overcome. The styles which are singularly proposed as being appropriate in all circumstances are: Likert's System 4 or participatory management (1961), Blake and Mouton's 9/9 or team management approach (1964) and the learning management style proposed by learning management protagonists such Mitroff (1978). Likert's System 4 and the 9/9 style both emphasise participatory decision-making, whilst the learning management style is explicitly morphogenetic in orientation. These styles comprise the elements which are considered to be appropriate within a South African

context of democratic practice where participation at all levels, coupled with a change orientation is essential. Moreover, the use of one style by the manager would also promote a more egalitarian way of managing which is crucial in countering individual and institutional racism, and other forms of prejudice within the present context of South Africa.

The limitations of the models presented by the social work writers such as Berg (1985), Austin (1989) and Kotin and Sharaf (1985) are that they represent an essentially situational style of management, requiring the manager to adjust his/her style in accordance with environmental variables as perceived by the manager. In addition, the models developed specifically for social work are generally underdeveloped and lack the component of change, specifically a morphogenetic change orientation. These models also fail to explicitly specify the degree to which participation is incorporated within the styles proposed as being effective within social work.

The Blake and Mouton (1964 and 1985) model of managerial style is therefore used in this study since it advocates for one style of management, that being the 9/9 approach, as being effective. The latter encompasses participatory principles as well as a learning and change orientation, with a morphogenetic component being implicit to this style of management.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND RESEARCH RESULTS

3.1. RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1.1. Selecting an Appropriate Research Design

Within the social work research literature, there has traditionally been two schools of thought regarding the application of social research: the empirical and the normative paradigms as noted by Peile (1988:1). The positivist empirical model postulates that human behaviour can be objectively observed or quantified and that rational deductions from these observations and measurements are valid. This approach may include, inter alia, the use of assessment instruments, experimental studies, interviewing and participant observation with the minimization of human bias. The basic components of the approach are: (a) logic or rationality, and (b) observation (Rubin and Babbie 1989:17). An extreme view of positivist empiricism is that an external or scientific reality is restricted to observable phenomena (Papineau 1987:2). However, Peile (1988:3) states that "the trend in social work research is toward a more pragmatic definition of empiricism and positivism rather than toward the more extreme logical empiricist or logical positivist position[s]..." Nevertheless, the elimination of "vagueness" is a hallmark of scientific inquiry with emphases being placed on operational definitions, hypothesis formulation, validity and reliability. In

applying scientific principles to the study of society and human behaviour, the degree of rationality is high, cause-effect relationships may be identified, and patterns of human behaviour within society may be distinguished. Rubin and Babbie (1989:18) state that the aim of social scientific research is the determination of "logical and persistent patterns of regularity in social life."

In contrast, the components of the normative or qualitative approach are, *inter alia*, insight, intuition, subjectivity and relativism (Peile 1988:4). Value preferences may therefore be reflected within normative studies since biases are not minimised. The humanistic emphasis of the normative approach is especially relevant in social work since it enables in-depth and qualitative analyses of human experience and feelings such as emotional trauma and suffering. However, owing to the limitations of the normative approach in that it reflects value preferences (Peile 1988:6), and a disillusionment with the mechanistic and hypothetico-deductive nature of positivist research within social work, attempts have been made to synthesise these two approaches.

This had led to alternative models of human inquiry. These approaches are, however, distinctly different from the individual paradigms which they incorporate (Peile 1988:11). An example of an approach which attempts to synthesise elements of the empirical and the normative paradigms is The "New Paradigm Approach" as espoused by Reason and Rowan (1989). This approach aims to be objectively-subjective as opposed to normative inquiry which is solely subjective, and positivist empirical research which strives to be exclusively objective. The New Paradigm model, in taking

account of the tensions within individuals towards subjectivity and objectivity, attempts to reconcile these seemingly polar opposites so that the research approach is more holistic. In the words of Reason and Rowan (1989:xiii): "What we are building in new paradigm research is an approach to inquiry which is systematic, rigorous search for truth, but which does not kill off all it touches: we are looking for a way of inquiry which can be loosely called objectively subjective." The emphasis of this new perspective is the recognition of the value of human feeling and experience and its power to stimulate change and determine human action. The research methods endorsed within this paradigm are aimed at conducting research with people - a collaborative inquiry model which, according to Torbert (1989:145), links research and action. Examples of research methods endorsed within this paradigm are experiential studies and in-depth interviewing with an action research component. The limitations with this approach is that it appears to be applicable only with small samples, and presupposes that research participants are motivated to participate meaningfully within the research process and also acquiescent to effect change within themselves, others and/or the environment.

In evaluating which model of research to utilize within this study, the following factors were taken into consideration:

- (i) The researcher wishes to reach as many social workers and their managers as possible.
- (ii) The research method had to ensure the dissemination of specific information by respondents from which managerial style could be uniformly and accurately

assessed in order to avoid haphazard and skewed interpretations of management style.

- (iii) Social work managers may present a more positive view of their functioning, whereas social workers may present a view of managers depending upon the nature of their relationships with the latter, thus also resulting in biased responses which may not accurately describe managerial behaviour. A research method is needed which will minimise these biases so that managerial style may be accurately identified.
- (iv) The researcher is a social worker and not a social work manager and a bias in this regard has to be limited.
- (v) The research study needs to be as objective as possible in order to be credible to find acceptance by social workers and managers.

Therefore, in order to reach a relatively large number of practitioners and managers, a survey research method was selected. Polansky (1975:49) distinguishes between two types of surveys: descriptive surveys which aim to describe phenomena, and explanatory surveys which seek to explore causal relationships between variables. The descriptive survey method was chosen, the objectives of which are congruent with the aims of this study and which have been outlined by Grinnell (1988:301-302) as follows: "The main purpose of the descriptive survey is only to find out the distribution of certain attributes among a sample of respondents randomly drawn from the population, or the entire population for that matter. When we conduct a descriptive survey, we are not interested in why this distribution exists; we only want to know what the distribution is."

The survey method holds an added benefit in that it enables the collection of information without causing feelings of excessive anxiety and resistance which may arise, for instance, in an interview. The sacrifice, then, may be that the rich experiences and intensity of feelings of participants which may be gained through interviews and other similar methods as proposed by the New Paradigm and normative advocates, will undoubtedly be lost. However, an open-ended questionnaire was formulated to provide a means of accessing the feelings and experiences of respondents in the light of their self-assessments (in the case of managers) and in the assessments of managers by workers.

In order to achieve the objective of soliciting specific information from which managerial style may be identified, tested data collection instruments especially formulated for style assessment were selected. These enabled respondents to provide a relatively objective assessment of the behaviour and modus operandi of managers. The assessment of managerial style may not be as accurately achieved, for example, through interviews as proposed by the New Paradigm and normative models. Interviews may constrain the researcher in the following ways:

- (i) The researcher will need to evaluate whether respondents are presenting facades, that is, whether managers (for example) are providing an honest reflection of themselves or whether they are presenting a "good image." This will be difficult since the researcher will be required to assess whether the manager is indeed being honest and the researcher's bias in this regard may result in an inaccurate interpretation and hence assessment of management style.

- (ii) Many managers and social workers are not familiar with managerial style models and may not be able to distinguish between styles which are very similar, for example, an authoritarian or an impoverished management style. An interview may also not produce the specific and detailed information needed to assess these different styles, and inaccurate interpretations may result. Yet, the identification of these different styles would enable a more accurate analysis of managerial behaviour and priorities.

The research method selected therefore largely conforms to the positivist empirical model owing to the use of assessment instruments and structured questionnaires as the primary sources of data collection. Peile (1988:1) states that there is a significant trend within social work research towards the empirical paradigm, and that the debate regarding the benefits of the approach will be ongoing. However, the empirical model was selected for the purposes of this study since the researcher considers this approach to be the more effective and efficient means of achieving the aims of the research as discussed above. Nevertheless, the researcher has undertaken the study from the perspective of acknowledging the intrinsic human nature of the participants, for example, being capable of change as opposed to a purely mechanistic and rigid view which is usually associated with extreme positivist empiricism. Moreover, the empirical model is not viewed by the researcher as being more relevant to social work than the normative or synthesised paradigms. That is, all three approaches are regarded as being relevant within social work research and the selection of any particular approach is principally dependent upon the nature and aim of the research to be undertaken.

3.2. Data Collection

3.2.1. Primary and Secondary Sources of Data Collection

Three separate questionnaires will be used to obtain primary data. The first will be a general questionnaire which will be provided to all participants. This questionnaire will elicit respondents' identifying details such as age, years of experience, formal qualifications and includes a series of open-ended questions to ascertain the individual's responses to management and managerial styles as well as the management style which respondents would prefer. For a copy of this questionnaire, see Appendix IV.

Attached to this questionnaire will be a assessment instrument which will be used to identify managerial style. This instrument will differ for managers and social workers. The managers will receive the Styles of Management Inventory (SMI) (Hall 1986) which comprises twelve questions, each of which presents five managerial styles (delineated within the Managerial Grid 1964) as alternatives which have to be rated in terms of their being characteristic of the management respondent. These ratings present a self-assessment by the managers and a description of the priorities, attitudes and behaviour the manager within his/her daily practice. This instrument has a specific scoring procedure to enable the researcher to identify the managerial style presented by the various responses. The scoring will be outlined later in this chapter. The companion instrument to the Styles of Management Inventory, is the Management Appraisal Survey (MAS) (Hall, Harvey and Williams 1986) which is administered to

supervisees, in this case social workers. This instrument presents the participant with similar questions as in the Styles of Management Inventory with the only difference being that the social worker has to assess his/her manager.

The secondary data comprises a literature review of published and unpublished texts which focuses on managerial style, management in general and social work management. Related literature have also been examined, particularly writings on organizational theory, organization development and change, social work in South Africa and social research.

3.2.2. The Styles of Management Inventory (SMI)

This instrument is based on the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid (1964) and was designed by Hall (1986). It is divided into four sections representing basic managerial concerns: management philosophy, planning, implementation and performance evaluation. Each section comprises of three questions, each of which in turn comprises five style options according to the Managerial Grid. The SMI requires the manager to assess him-/herself according to of all five styles options in terms of each of the twelve questions presented. In effect, then, the manager has to rate him-/herself sixty times on a ten point scale of "completely characteristic" to "completely uncharacteristic". The instrument has been tested by Teleometrics International in a broad cross-section of work environments including the human services (Hall 1986:19). The median coefficient of stability for this questionnaire is 0.72, the significance level

3.2.4. Data Collection Procedures

3.2.4.1. Sampling

Non-random sampling was used in this study to enable all social work managers (estimated number 75) and all line social workers (estimated number 240) in the employ of private social work organizations in the greater Cape Town area to be included in the sample (provided that the organization employs five or more social workers). In order to delineate the sample, the social work organizations meeting the criteria for inclusion in the study first had to be identified. The Regional Welfare Board provided a list of all State-subsidized organizations from which the number of social workers employed could be ascertained. In identifying those organizations which are not State-subsidized but who still meet the criteria of the study, the Life Line Resource Book was used. Nineteen organizations were identified as meeting the criteria for inclusion. A letter was forwarded to each organization requesting their participation and in the event of the latter, also their preference of how the questionnaires could be administered within their organization. (For a copy of this letter, see Appendix I.) Thirteen organizations agreed to participate in the study. This reduced the number of managers and social workers within the sample to 59 and 178 respectively.

3.2.4.2. Administration of the Questionnaires

Three methods of administering the questionnaires were used: group administration, organization internal mail, and conventional postage.

The table below depicts how the three methods were utilised according to the preferences of the participating organizations:

Method of Administration	Number of Organizations	Number of Respondents
Group administration	4	50
Internal mail	6	64
Postage	1	5
Group administration & internal mail	1	7
Group administration & postage	1	21

TABLE 7: The Administration of the Questionnaires

A covering letter (see Appendix III) was used in the administration of the questionnaires through internal mail and conventional postage.

3.2.4.3. Screening the Data

Only those managerial assessment instruments which were properly completed could be scored and hence were included in the study. This means that all questions in the SMI and MAS instruments needed to be answered by respondents. Should a

respondent, for example, fail to rate one style option, the instrument could not be scored and would then be considered spoiled. Altogether 40 SMI and 89 MAS instruments which were properly completed could be used. The open-ended questionnaire which accompanied each managerial assessment instrument was only included in the study once the latter was able to be scored. Therefore, the open-ended questionnaires accompanying those assessment instruments which were spoiled and therefore could not be scored, were eliminated with those instruments.

3.2.4.4. Scoring the Questionnaires

The SMI and MAS require the same scoring procedures. These are as follows:

(a) Determining raw scores

Each of the five alternatives in the questions of the SMI and MAS instruments present a particular managerial style. The rating given to each style alternative presents a raw score. These raw scores are placed on a prepared scoring form (Appendix VII) which differentiates the five Grid Styles. Therefore, the scoring sheet enables the scores for each style to be placed in one column. The scores in these columns are added, giving a total score for each column and thus for each managerial style. These represent the raw scores of the instrument.

(b) T-scores

The raw scores for each style are then converted to standardized T-scores, using tables for the SMI and MAS respectively provided by Teleometrics International. Appendices VIII and IX present copies of the T-Tables for the SMI and MAS respectively.

(c) Determining style profiles

The relationship between the T-scores determines the manager's style profile. In arranging the styles from the highest to the lowest score, the differences between the scores indicate dominant style, style confusion, lack of a dominant style or the Statistical 5/5 profile which is the use of all five styles interchangeably.

The table below illustrates how the differences in T-scores determines the overall managerial style identified.

STYLE IDENTIFIED	SCORE DIFFERENCE
Dominant style	Ten or more points between highest and second highest scores
Dominant style confusion	Less than 10 points between highest and second highest scores
Lack of dominant style	Less than 10 points between the three or four highest scores
Statistical 5/5	Less than 10 points between all the scores

TABLE 8: T-Score and Style Identification

The scoring of the questionnaires therefore provides the researcher with standardized scores for each respondent which may be translated into style strength and hence the identification of dominant managerial styles, or style variations. An example of the latter is the statistical 5/5 profile which results when the manager is unpredictable in his/her use of each of the five styles since the differences in the scores are too low to determine which style is dominant.

However, once a dominant style is identified, the strength of backup styles may also be determined by the number of points less, more or equal to 10 points. For example, if the difference in scores is less than 10 of the style rated subsequent to the dominant style, then the backup is fairly strong. Should the difference in the scores be 10 or more points then the respondent will hesitate before using a backup style. Should the difference be 20 or more points, then the respondent may resist the backup style entirely. However, this study will only be concerned with the dominant style profiles as these are indicative of the manager's characteristic way of working.

3.3. Research Results

The research results will be presented in the following manner: an analysis of response rates, the identifying details of respondents, followed by the responses to the open-ended questions which set the tone for the results of the SMI and MAS scores which are presented at the end of the chapter.

3.3.1. Response Rates

The field research commenced in August 1993 and was completed in July 1994. As mentioned above, 18 organizations were identified as employing 5 or more social workers. (See Appendix II for a list of these organizations.) Of this number, 13 organizations agreed to participate in the study and 5 preferred not to participate. Owing to the latter, the number of respondents within the research sample was reduced. However, 1 manager and 2 social workers in the employ of those organizations which preferred not to participate, agreed to complete questionnaires as independent respondents. Questionnaires were therefore administered to a total of 59 managers and 178 social workers. Only one organization was not State-subsidized, indicating that most organizations participating in the study operated within the formal welfare sector (Patel 1992).

The response rates were as follows:

(a) Management sample

The table below summarises the response rates of the management sample.

	No. of respondents	Percentage
Number of questionnaires administered	59	100
Response rate	41	69.49
No responses	18	30.51
Number of spoiled questionnaires	1	1.69
Total number of questionnaires used	40	67.8

TABLE 9: Response Rates of the Management Sample

The 40 questionnaires which were used in this sample comprise the responses of 17 supervisors, 2 programme managers, 13 departmental managers, 2 deputy directors and 6 directors.

(b) Social worker sample

The table below presents the response rates of the social worker sample.

	No. of respondents	Percentage
Number of questionnaires administered	178	100
Response rate	107	60.11
No responses	71	39.89
Number of spoiled questionnaires	18	10.11
Total number of questionnaires used	89	50

TABLE 10: Response Rates of the Social Worker Sample

(c) Overall response rate

The overall response rates which include both the management and social worker samples are presented in the table below.

	No. of respondents	Percentage
Number of questionnaires administered	237	100
Response rate	148	62.45
No responses	89	37.55
Number of spoiled questionnaires	19	8.02
Total number of questionnaires used	129	54.43

TABLE 11: Overall Response Rates

A significant factor of these results is that the overall response rate is 54.43% which is relatively high despite the constraint that the questionnaires were relatively lengthy and in-depth often requiring more than one hour for completion. However, a reason for the relatively high response rate may be that the researcher often liaised directly with organizations in terms of administering the questionnaires.

3.3.2. Profile of Respondents

3.3.2.1. Management Sample

Table 12 below reflects the profile of managers according to sex, age, average length of present employment and experience, basic and additional qualifications as well as qualifications in fields other than social work.

Characteristic/Factor	No.	Percentage
Sex: Male	8	20
Female	32	80
Age: 20-30	3	7.5
31-40	18	45
41-50	13	32.5
over 50	6	15
Average length of present employment	9.17	-
Average years of social work experience	9.9	-
Average years managerial experience	6.2	-
Basic qualifications:		
3 year university diploma	8	20
4 year university diploma	2	5
3 year university degree	19	47.5
4 year university degree	6	15
3 year Minnie Hofmeyer diploma	1	2.5
No qualification in social work	4	10
Additional qualifications in social work:		
Advanced diploma	3	7.5
Honours degree	16	40
Masters degree	9	22.5
Doctoral degree	0	0
Qualifications in any other field:	12	30
Further studies in any field including social work	7	17.5

N = 40.

TABLE 12: Identifying Details of Managers

It is evident from these results that the managers are predominantly female, with a university background and with additional qualifications in social work up to Honours or Masters level. There is also a significant percentage (30%) of managers who have a qualification in another field. The latter includes individuals with the following qualifications: Masters degrees in Social Sector Planning and Management, Economics and History, and Diplomas in Personnel Management, Business Management, Small Business Management, Medical Technology and Education.

However, there are also four managers with no qualification in social work. These managers hold the following qualifications: Music Teacher's Diploma, Masters Degree in Sociology, Advanced Diploma in Adult Education, and a Diploma in Education. Two of these managers hold directorship positions.

Managers who are engaged in further studies have identified these fields as follows: Industrial Relations (1 respondent), Masters and Doctoral studies in Social Work (6 respondents).

3.3.2.2. Social Worker (Comparison) Sample

In this sample, only the questionnaires of 89 social workers which could be scored were used in the study. Eighteen were improperly completed and therefore results could not be scored. These spoiled questionnaires have been excluded from the analysis below:

Characteristic/Factor	No.	Percentage
Sex: Male	13	14.6
Female	76	85.4
Age: 20-30	47	52.8
31-40	28	31.5
41-50	9	10.1
over 50	5	5.6
Average length of present employment	3.45	-
Average years of social work experience	6.7	-
Basic qualifications:		
3 year university diploma	8	8.9
4 year university diploma	14	15.7
3 year university degree	20	22.5
4 year university degree	41	46.1
3 year Minnie Hofmeyer diploma	2	2.3
4 year college diploma	4	4.5
Additional qualifications in social work:		
Advanced diploma	0	0
Honours degree	22	24.7
Masters degree	3	3.4
Doctoral degree	0	0
Qualifications in any other field:	15	16.9
Further studies in any field including social work	12	13.5

N = 89.

TABLE 13: Identifying Details of Social Workers

From the above table it is apparent that the social worker respondents are predominantly female. All the respondents within this sample are qualified social workers and a significant number also possess additional qualifications in social work. There is also a certain percentage of this sample with qualifications in other fields which include: human resource management, general nursing, secretarial work, Diplomas in Technology, Industrial Relations, Library Science, Business Practice, Personnel Management, Theology; and Honours Degrees in History, Administration, Sociology and Psychology. A smaller number of social workers are also pursuing further studies. These areas of study are Industrial Psychology, Law, Public Relations, Fine Art, Religious Studies, and Social Work.

Within this comparison sample, six social workers indicated that they have managerial experience, of which the average years of experience is 3.9. One social work respondent also indicated that he works as a part-time consultant in the social services of which he has 9 months experience.

3.3.2.3. Discussion of the Identifying Details of Respondents

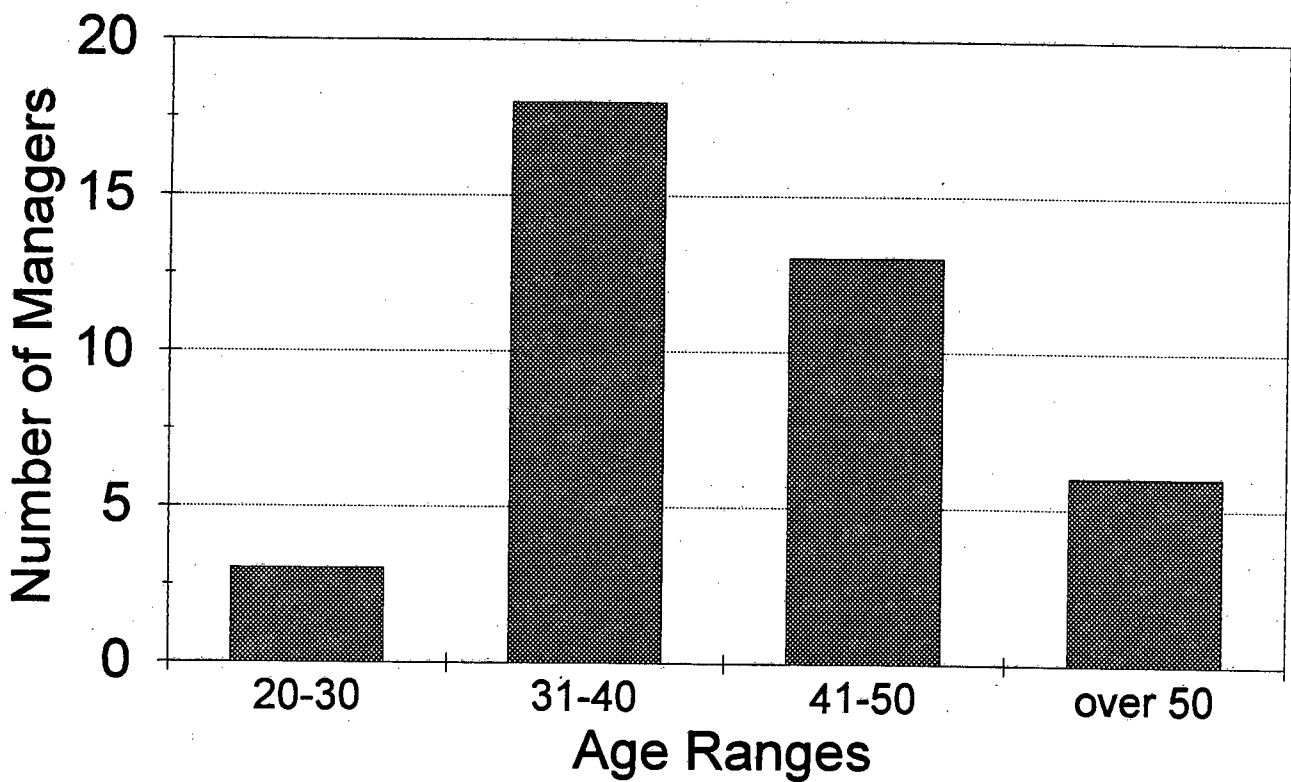
In both samples of managers and social workers, female practitioners were dominant showing 80% of the management sample and 85.4% of the social workers. The results show no correlation between sex and managerial style and this is confirmed by the results of similar research studies by Hall (1986:19) and Donnell and Hall (1990). This trend is also consistent within social work as Ezell's (1993:54) study concludes: "In

sum, two independent samples of social work managers demonstrated that there were great similarities in the behaviour and the priorities of men and women managers. A social work manager's gender is not a key explanatory factor when it comes to understanding their work priorities and activities." Gender is therefore not a significant factor in the determination of any particular managerial style. Furthermore, the results show little evidence of a gender bias in social workers' assessments of managerial style which a study by York, Moran and Denton (1989:55) confirms.

In the category of age, the following graphs illustrate the age ranges of the two samples:

Age Ranges

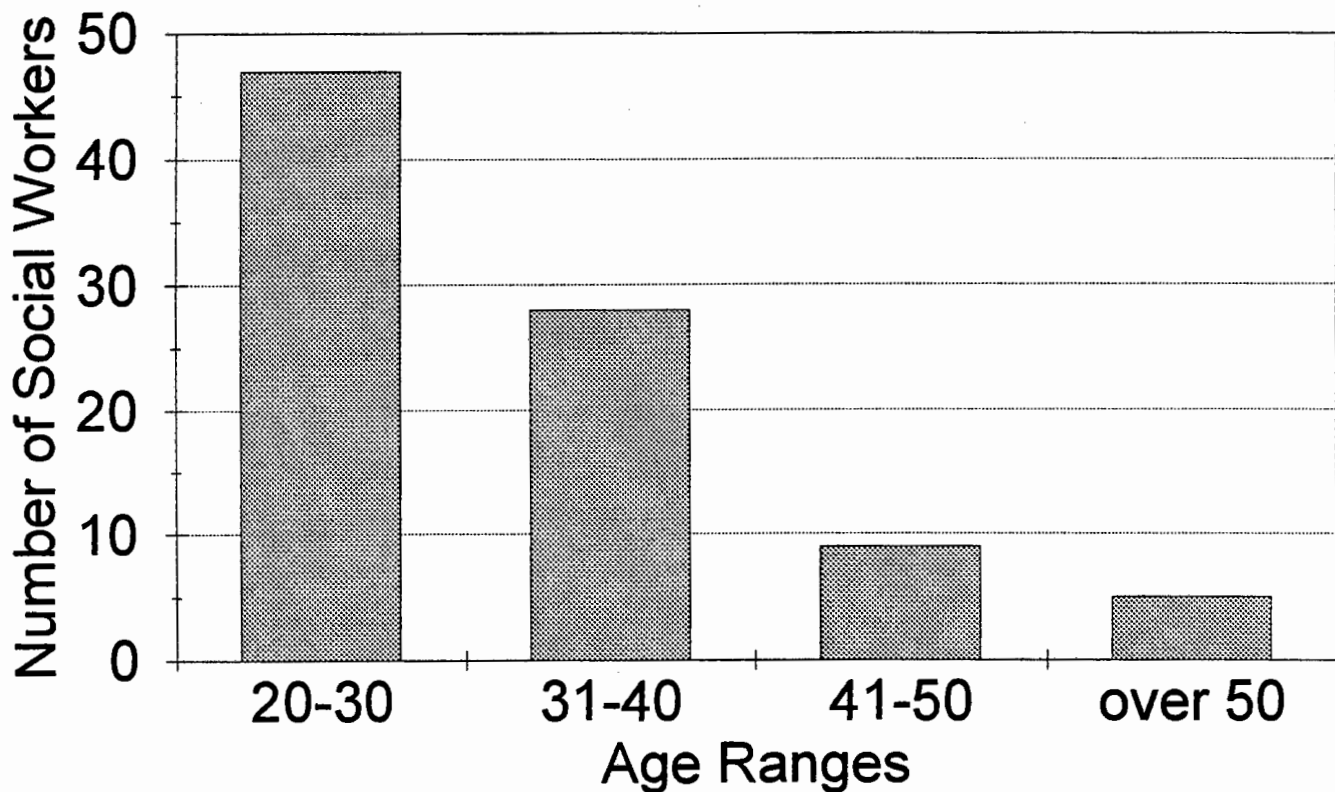
Management Sample



GRAPH 1: Age Ranges of the Management Sample

Age Ranges

Social Worker Sample



GRAPH 2: Age Ranges of the Social Worker Sample

The graphs above show managers as being predominantly in the age range of 30-50 years and social workers in the age range of 20-40 years. There does not seem to be a large age gap between managers and social workers in general. There is also no correlation between age and management style in the case of both samples.

The average length of employment and the average years of experience of managers are relatively high with a negligible difference between these two figures, possibly indicating that managers have remained in the same organizations for long periods, thus gaining access to managerial positions by virtue of length of service. In contrast, the social work sample shows an average length of employment which appears relatively low (3.45 years), and average of years of experience of 6.7 years. The difference of about 3 years between these figures indicates that social workers' turnover within organizations are higher than those for managers. Yet, the average years of experience for social workers is relatively high showing a comparably high degree of field expertise. The average years of experience of managers within management is 6.2 years indicating that managerial positions tend to be held for long periods of time by the same individuals, possibly hampering the upward mobility of social workers. This figure is also relatively high and may be indicative of the fact that management style is entrenched to some degree.

With respect to the basic qualifications of both managers and social workers, it is evident that generally respondents in both samples are formally qualified social workers with only four managers not holding social work qualifications. A relatively high percentage of managers and social workers also have Honours degrees in social work indicating a reasonably high degree of education in this discipline. The management sample indicates a relatively high percentage of respondents with masters degrees in social work (22.5%) compared with the low percentage of 3.4% for social workers.

From these figures it may be deduced that there is a higher percentage of managers who have similar qualifications to those social workers whom they are managing, compared with the number of managers who have a higher social work qualification to their supervisees.

3.3.3. Responses to the Open-Ended Questions by the Management Sample

3.3.3.1. Definition of Management

In response to the first open-ended question on defining management, a range of definitions were offered by managers. However, the idea that management is about control emerged as being significant as 10 managers defined management as a process or means of controlling decision-making, task accomplishment, planning, prioritizing, evaluation or people. Some of the direct responses of the managers in defining management in terms of control are:

"Control or in charge of any venture be it business, office, team or home."

"A person or group being in charge of an organization."

"Effective management depends on the manager's ability to control his workforce, [and] who is responsible for carrying out tasks. Management has the responsibility of making decisions regarding the manner in which goals are to be achieved."

The fact that management has been defined in this manner by 25% of managers may be attributed to classic definitions of management which stipulate control as an

important aspect of managerial functioning. The definition offered by Griffin (1987:9) may be used as an example. He writes that: "A manager is someone whose primary activities are a part of the management process. In particular, a manager is someone who plans and makes decisions, organizes, leads, and controls human, financial, physical and information resources." Another reason for the definitions of management in terms of control is that certain managers may perceive their roles as being mainly that of control agents. This may be owing to organizational expectations and/or a lack of appropriate managerial training and development.

However, 7 managers felt that management was about co-ordinating teams which indicate that there is also a number of managers who view their task as a collaborative process and not one of individual effort only. Five managers stressed the importance of a leadership component within management, whereas 5 other managers emphasised the balancing of worker and organizational needs, and yet another 5 managers mentioned the need to achieve effective and efficient organizational functioning. Defining management as addressing only worker needs was suggested by 4 respondents in this sample. Managerial definitions which included references to consultation and addressing learning needs were mentioned by very few managers (less than 5), and appeared to be a reflection of the exception rather than the general view.

From these results it appears that management is viewed by a number of social work managers as a process of control which assures the accomplishment of tasks according to organizational policy. However, the view of management as the co-

ordination of teams also featured prominently which demonstrates that certain social work managers perceive their task as co-ordination as opposed to that of control. However, the definitions offered by managers failed to mention managerial roles such as organizational change agent, or facilitator of organizational learning. Management respondents also failed to include issues of managerial accountability within their definitions. Very few managers (less than 5) mentioned the managerial responsibility of consultation and participation. One may therefore conclude that managers generally view their role(s) in terms of control and to a lesser extent as co-ordination, as opposed to that of power sharer and/or change agent.

3.3.3.2. Description of the Dominant Management Style within Organizations

A relatively large number of managers (about 25%) stated that the dominant managerial style within their organizations was autocratic. About the same number (25%) felt that the dominant style was a combination of autocracy and participation. This accounts for about half of the responses to this question. However, the other 50% of the responses indicated that managers felt that the dominant style within their organizations was democratic, consultative, or moving towards a participatory style. These results show that managers acknowledge the prevalence of autocratic practices within social work management, and also illustrate that managers perceive that changes in managerial practice towards a more participatory style are taking place.

3.3.3.3. Effectiveness of the Dominant Style Identified

About 27% of managers (11 respondents) indicated that the dominant style described was only effective and not ineffective at all. The reasons offered for this differed depending on the style identified. In the case of a dominant autocratic style, the main reason offered for the effectiveness thereof was that it ensured task accomplishment. Some of the reasons offered for the participatory style being desirable were that it enabled worker views to be expressed, and made workers feel that they were included in decision-making.

3.3.3.4. Ineffectiveness of the Dominant Style Identified

Thirteen managers (32.5%) indicated that the dominant styles as identified by themselves were completely ineffective. These views particularly referred to styles labelled as autocratic, bureaucratic and non-democratic. Additional reasons for style ineffectiveness included the demotivation of employees, worker exclusion from decision-making, high staff turnover rates and increased worker stress owing to autocratic management practices. The effects on service delivery were also mentioned by one manager, whose comment summarises the views of most managers who responded similarly: "It [the autocratic style] is probably the least effective, as the top structure can lose sight of the needs of the clients and the aspirations of the staff members."

3.3.3.5. Effectiveness and Ineffectiveness of the Dominant Style Identified

Another segment of 13 management respondents (32.5%) indicated that the dominant managerial style as identified by themselves were both effective and ineffective. These managers mainly evaluated managerial styles within their organizations according to the effects on services, organizational survival and as it contributed to their being able to accomplish their jobs as managers effectively. For example, one manager felt that an autocratic management style was needed for the financial survival of the organization, but that a different style was needed in the social work department to enable the effective rendering of services. The tensions within organizational functioning were therefore apparent in this set of responses. For example, another manager stated that the problem with a democratic management style was that it tended to "slow activities down", yet it also enabled staff members to feel that they are part of decision-making.

Another significant feature which emerged in these responses is that ineffectiveness and effectiveness tended to be dichotomised along opposing organizational participant perceptions. For example, one management respondent presented the problem with a democratic style as follows: "Although management has an open door policy and encourages participation from all staff, it is not perceived as such by everybody." This comment reflects the view of those managers who responded similarly as they recognise that whilst certain staff members such as managers may feel that the predominant style is one of democracy or participation and identify this as being effective, there may be other staff members such as workers who may not share this

view. Managers who responded in this way therefore evaluated the nature of style effectiveness according to how they perceived it and also how they felt it was viewed by different organizational members. Hence, they indicated both the effectiveness and ineffectiveness of the dominant style described by themselves within their organizations.

3.3.3.6. How Management Respondents would Like to be Managed

An overwhelming number of management respondents (64.1%) indicated that they prefer to be managed in a participatory/democratic manner. Reasons offered for this were that managers want their opinions to be valued, and desire an environment where initiative is encouraged and consultation takes place. One manager specifically felt that a participatory style would clarify organizational philosophy and procedures and minimize feelings of jealousy. It is apparent from these responses that managers desire increased transparency within organizations and wish to work in environments where mutual respect and trust is promoted. Being treated with respect was specifically mentioned by 5 managers (12.8%) as being important in how they wish to be managed. Another 5 managers also stated that they prefer to be managed in such a manner whereby they may work autonomously. From these responses it would seem that managers in social welfare organizations enjoy limited freedom in their jobs. The call by many management respondents for transparency, democracy and participatory styles is clearly evident of this. These results confirm the outcome of a study on participatory management by Miles and Ritchie (1980:280) which indicates the

preference for this style of management by organizational participants. In this respect, Miles and Ritchie (1980:280) write: "The majority of our findings support the major formulations of participatory management theory..."

However there were two managers whose responses differed markedly from the rest of the sample. One of these managers stated that she prefers to be managed in a laissez faire manner as this creates more accountability and responsibility in the organization. Another respondent described a bureaucratic style of management as being dominant in her organization, and felt that she would prefer to be managed in this way. These latter responses appear to be the exceptions since the majority of managers felt that a participatory/democratic style would be more effective and desirable.

3.3.3.7. Additional Comments by Management Respondents

Only eight managers provided additional comments. The latter covered a range of factors which impact upon the nature of management in social work organizations. One of the issues raised is the recruitment of top managers from the business sector which impacts on the way the organization is managed. As stated by a respondent:

"The organization recently employed a new director who is not a social worker but an engineer by trade. He is very business oriented and manages the company from that point of view."

The role of the State as affecting management practices in social work was mentioned by another respondent:

"Management in the welfare field is often made complex by the role of the State limiting us in terms of finances and certain prescriptions."

However, this respondent did not elaborate on which prescriptions required by the State affect management practices. It may, however, be concluded from this comment that the shortage of funds may either hamper management development, and/or may curtail the role of the manager in terms of service provision. The comment of another respondents reflects this view as he states:

"In the field of welfare hardly anyone is trained as a manager. Most manage by common sense, intuition, trial and error, and a good measure of goodwill. We are not sent on expensive seminars and training courses, neither do we have secretaries/assistants or the luxury of at some stage getting away from grassroots work or administrative work such as photocopying. We are both worker and manager."

This does not necessarily imply that the State welfare policies are solely and directly responsible for the way in which managers currently perform their tasks. From the comments of other respondents it is evident that intra-organizational dynamics and a lack of skilled leadership also present limitations. Comments provided by two respondents highlight these issues as follows:

"Although the agency preaches open type of communication, practice is contrary to this as the final decision is made by management whether acceptable to staff or not."

"The elements of giving clear direction through an exemplary leadership is missing. Democracy being unprincipled in its nature leads easily to an unprincipled autocracy."

It may therefore appear that whilst certain managers purport to adhere to principles of participation, in reality this is not implemented, thus creating frustration amongst organizational participants in general. The fact that autocratic management styles have been identified strongly within the management sample may be reflective of the

separation of desired procedure and actual practice. In order to work towards the closure of this gap, managers may need to embark on critical self-reflection as stated by one manager:

"I found the inventory interesting and difficult. The extremes were fairly easy - often the balance[s] were indistinguishable. My answers to [the open ended questions]...are confused and pointed up my need to address that area of myself and my management style."

This respondent scored a profile of a 9/9 manager which is consistent with the manner in which she is willing to learn and engage in self-analysis. Thus, whilst the impact of external forces such as limited finance and State prescriptions may negatively affect management practice and hence management style, the need for constant self-development is crucial in order to attain a higher degree of effectiveness. In fact, another respondent also commented on the need for management development in the form of mentorship which would entail that managers should start recognising the managerial potential of workers and facilitate their growth in this regard. This respondent stated the following:

"Management should allow growth within the subordinate and if possible to develop potential managerial skills."

This comment recognises the need for a constant development of management skills within social work and views the means by which this may be attained as being within the ambit of present managers and not necessarily in the form of expensive management courses. It therefore appears that certain managers appreciate that internal mentorship programmes, for example, may be a viable and inexpensive alternative in developing the human resources within social work for the crucial task of increased managerial effectiveness particularly within a context of scarce resources.

3.3.4. Responses to the Open-Ended Questions by the Social Worker (Comparison) Sample.

3.3.4.1. Definition of Management

A large number of the social workers (about 46%) defined management in terms of control. Direct responses from workers reflect the extent to which they view management as a controlling structure:

"To be in control - my life, work, etc."

"Management is to take control of a business or taking control of people working under you."

"Management can be defined as the ability to control and be in charge of any establishment."

"Management is the effective controlling of the company's resources to achieve optimum performance and utilization."

"Management comprises those who decide on policy, administer the affairs of the organization and are accountable for the functioning of the organization."

"Management can be defined as those who control or facilitate the running of an organization."

"Bestuur is die hantering en beheer van mense om 'n taak suksesvol te voltooi."

"Management should be done by somebody who does not have a bossy behaviour."

"[Management is] people in top positions - involved in running [the] organization - to be able to delegate duties, interpret staff aims, problems..."

"[Management is] to control and regulate activities and/or services."

However, in contrast to the management sample, the social workers' responses in this regard tended to reflect their organizational experiences. Most of those workers who defined management in terms of control, indicated that the predominant managerial style within their organizations was autocratic.

Managerial control appears to be more distinct and extensive in the responses of the social workers. This may be owing to a number of factors, of which a significant issue in this regard may be workers' experiences of the process of one-to-one supervision

which is characteristic of management in social work. This approach to supervision ensures that the supervisor or manager maintains a greater degree of power over the worker not only in terms of workload, but more significantly in isolating the worker from other workers so that increased interaction and the exchange of ideas are restricted with the result that the input and direction of the manager becomes salient. Blake and Mouton (1964:206) recognise this when they write: "Another significant way to insure retention of control is to operate on a one-to-one basis with one's subordinates or peers and to avoid situations of interaction where there is a free exchange of ideas or information."

It is significant within this study the majority of social work respondents associated control with the management process. Whilst it may be argued that control forms an important part of the management process, it is not necessarily a predominant function. It may therefore be postulated here that the views concerning management as expressed by the respondents, particularly that of the social workers, are closely tied to their experience of being managed, specifically, in terms of managerial control. This provides indications as to the nature of dominant styles which will be identified in the managerial assessment instruments, that is, possibly a high number of 1/1 or impoverished management styles.

However, there were also a number of different responses to the question of defining management. These responses included views of management as encompassing the following:

- (i) ensuring effective organizational functioning (11 workers)
- (ii) co-ordination and support (7 workers)
- (iii) working with teams (6 workers)
- (iv) operating democratically (6 workers)
- (v) planning, controlling, evaluating, goal-setting (classic definition)(4 workers)
- (vi) the balancing of individual and organizational needs (2 respondents)
- (vii) meeting organizational goals only (2 respondents)
- (viii) problem-solving (2 respondents)
- (ix) skills in working with people and organizations (2 responses)
- (x) management style (1 respondent)
- (xi) leading (1 respondent).

These responses show that 30 workers (33.7%) felt that management is concerned with ensuring organizational effectiveness, support and co-ordination, teamwork, and democratic decision-making. Whilst this may not necessarily be linked to the personal experiences of social work respondents, it could also partially represent the aspirations of workers in terms of how they would prefer management to be. This variety of responses indicates that a significant number of workers also hold a positive view of management.

3.3.4.2. Description of the Dominant Management Style within Organizations

The dominant style identified by most social work respondents was autocratic (44.9%) while 38.2% felt that it was supportive. Other styles identified to a lesser extent were as follows:

Democratic/consultative or moving towards participation: 11.2%

Combination of autocracy and participation: 7.7%.

A number of individual responses which could not be categorised were as follows: passive-avoidant, benevolent dictatorship, paternalistic, and task-oriented.

These results therefore indicate trends in management styles characterised by autocratic or centralised decision-making as being predominant in social work organizations. However, supportive management practices also seem to be prevalent, though to a lesser extent. The reason for the latter may be that supervision is also used as a form of managerial support within social work.

3.3.4.3. Effectiveness of the Dominant Style Identified

In response to the question on the effectiveness the dominant managerial style as identified by social workers, only 16.9% of these respondents indicated that it was entirely effective. Reasons for this ranged from the fact that the managerial style was one of democracy or characterised by support for the worker. A selection of the direct responses in this regard are:

"The style is not ineffective as we work as a team, understanding the pressures of management."

"[Die styl is] effektief want take word uitgevoer en verhoudings word gebou."

"'n Mensgerigte bestuurstyl ...kan lojaliteit en produktiwiteit verhoog."

"Better job satisfaction, better meeting of clients' needs."

"...the staff feels part of some decision-making which creates loyalty..."

"Consultative management [is] ...fair. It allows ideas and responses to flow from top-down and down to top enabling a more efficient working relationship."

"My organizational style is very democratic.... Work gets done. Workers feel more responsible and experience a great sense of accountability. There is continuous consultation in team meetings. A lot of support is felt in this way."

3.3.4.4. Ineffectiveness of the Dominant Style Identified

A significant number of social workers (37%) felt that the management styles used in their organizations were totally ineffective. This is largely owing to the autocratic styles of management which were identified as being predominant. The reasons presented for the ineffectiveness of management styles were diverse and are, inter alia:

*"Carrot and donkey style. Work to get pay. Staff fear[s] authority. Low staff morale."
"Being too autocratic is not effective in improving organizational functioning because employees become dissatisfied - begin to think that they do not have a voice - that they do not matter."*

"In general [a bureaucratic style]...seems effective. But on ground level people tend to have a laissez faire attitude and the job is not always done."

"It [the authoritarian style] is in many ways detrimental to organizational functioning. The functional demarcation creates the situation where workers and supervisors fall under different organizational structures. Loyalty of workers and supervisors differs."

"[The autocratic style] produces low morale among workers; it destroys initiative and creativity; it does not allow for growth and development."

3.3.4.5. Effectiveness and Ineffectiveness of the Dominant Style Identified

The majority of social work respondents (45%) indicated that the styles as identified by themselves were both effective and ineffective. These workers therefore attempted to present a balanced critique of the management styles in their organizations. A selection of responses in this regard are:

"Top-down management ...[is] half effective. It gets the work done, but perhaps work could have been done if people were involved in decision-making. Also people would be more willing to co-operate if they were involved in decision-making."

"[The democratic style is] very effective if there is enough control. It can be ineffective if everyone does not participate fully in our decision-making processes."

"The job gets done but staff are not positive regarding the organization. Personal growth is not encouraged and staff lack initiative."

"It [the autocratic style] causes dissatisfaction at times. The employees in a higher position seem to be the only ones involved in decision-making. It is however less time consuming."

"It [task-oriented management style] is effective in motivating staff to keep the organization's function in mind. [But] the needs and expectations of staff take second place."

These responses typically reflect the tensions within organizational functioning in terms of task accomplishment versus worker satisfaction, and autocratic efficiency versus consultative decision-making. It is evident from these responses that social workers are describing managerial styles which are underpinned by the assumption that there is a divergence between the goals of the organizational and those of workers. This indicates that the social workers' sample will indicate a low number of 9/9 management styles. The 9/9 style is based on the premise that effective management is the integration of organizational and worker goals.

3.3.4.6. How Social Worker Respondents would like to be Managed

The overwhelming response to this question showed that social workers (more than 50%) preferred being managed in a democratic or participatory manner. A number of additional responses were received which were mentioned by no more than five respondents. These responses are as follows:

- (i) by consultation
- (ii) by a skilled person
- (iii) with respect
- (iv) in a benevolent authoritarian manner
- (v) would not like to be managed.

The social workers and management sample are therefore consistent in terms of the manner in which they would prefer to be managed. Yet, the styles described within the open-ended questions, particularly in the social workers sample, indicate that generally managers will have to change from autocratic and controlling practices in order to realise a democratic or participatory managerial style.

3.3.4.7. Additional Comments by Social Worker Respondents

Only a small number of social work respondents (less than 10) within this sample provided additional comments. The latter were diverse and tended not to be indicative of any particular trends. A selection of these comments are as follows:

"Supervisors have improved since the "growling dictators" of the 60's."

"Management cannot be blamed for any particular style because social workers 'always' assure a submissive role. They want to be led. Self-empowerment is the beginning."

"Managers must at all times be aware of job satisfaction, growth of workers, exploring their potential. Managers must also be sensitive to the workers' feelings. Managers must at all times convey positive criticism and not break down the person's self-worth (self-esteem) during consultations."

"Pettness from management encourages lack of responsibility among staff."

"Managers should be 'channels' of communication and not dead-end blockers of communication. Managers should represent their subordinates to higher authority."

"I feel it is important to involve people in decision-making processes. Workers identify more positively with the organization and is more willing to give of themselves if they feel positive towards the organization."

However, there were a small number (5) of social work respondents from different organizations which indicated high levels of frustration with current management practices, in particular, owing to the lack managerial training. This may be attributed to a significant number of social workers who are managed by persons with similar or lower qualifications than themselves.

3.3.5. Results of the Styles of Management Inventory (SMI)

The results of the SMI were classified into the five Grid styles as proposed by the Blake and Mouton model. However, responses also showed three style combinations.

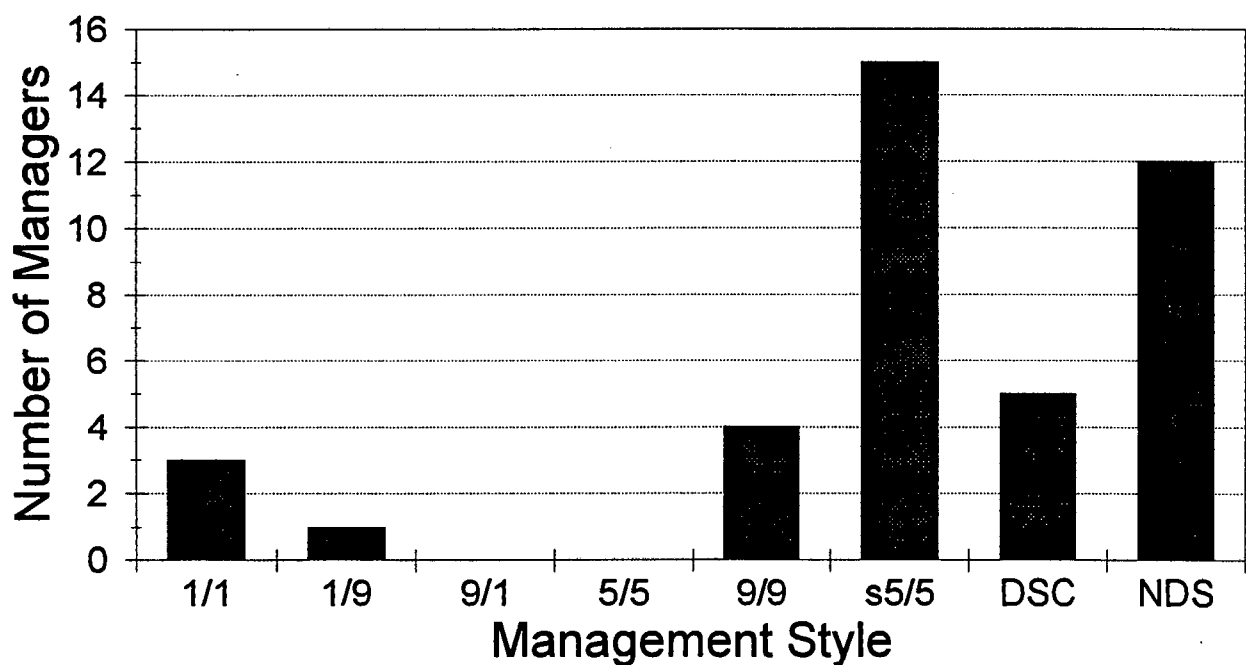
These are:

- (i) the statistical 5/5 style which is the use of all Grid styles interchangeably
- (ii) dominant style confusion - two styles are used interchangeably
- (iii) "no dominant style" profile - three or four styles used interchangeably.

The graph below depicts the results in this respect:

Management Styles

As Identified by Managers



KEY:

1/1: Impoverished management
 1/9: Country club management
 9/1: Authority-obedience style
 5/5: Organization-man management

9/9: Team management
 s5/5: Statistical 5/5 profile
 DSC: Dominant style confusion
 NDS: No dominant style

GRAPH 3: Management Styles as Identified by Managers

In percentage terms the frequency of the styles are as follows:

STYLE	PERCENTAGE
1/1	7.5
1/9	2.5
9/1	0
5/5	0
9/9	10
stat.5/5	37.5
Dominant Style Confusion	12.5
"No Dominant Style" Profile	30

TABLE 14: Percentages of Management Styles as Identified by Managers

3.3.5.1. Interpretation of the SMI Results

As is evident from the graph above, the statistical 5/5 profile is the most predominant in the management sample. This profile is one where the T-score differences between each style on the Grid is too small (less than 10 points) to be able to predict which individual style will be used first. The manager with this profile will tend to "read" or assess the situation before deciding which style to use. This is typically a situational approach to managing which is similar to models advocated by Reddin (1970), and Hersey and Blanchard (1982). However, according to the Blake and Mouton model (1964), this style is not desirable. The manager's biases and judgements may negatively affect the manner in which s/he reacts to a particular situation, leading to

inconsistency and unpredictability. This limitation will be analyzed in greater detail in Chapter 4 where each managerial style will be discussed in depth. However, another problem with the statistical 5/5 profile is that these managers use a 9/1 or an authority-obedience style in directing workers (Blake and Mouton 1985:152). The high incidence of the statistical 5/5 profile therefore confirm the results of the open-ended questionnaire where 25% of managers indicated that authoritative management approaches are predominant within their organizations, and another 25% stated that a combination of autocracy and participation was characteristic of styles in their organizations.

Another significant feature of the SMI scores is that there is a large number of managers who have shown a "no dominant style" profile, with a smaller number indicating dominant style confusion. These results may be viewed in conjunction with the statistical 5/5 result since they indicate that managers are using more than one style unpredictably. The manager with a "no dominant style" profile and style confusion also appear to be "reading" situations before reacting, and tend to vacillate between two to four Grid styles. Managers showing these style profiles therefore seem to be adhering closely to a situational management approach as embodied within the statistical 5/5 profile.

In examining the graph further, four managers assessed themselves as having a 9/9 profile. This is relatively low since the results of group averages for the SMI across organizational types show human service settings as scoring highest for this style (Hall 1986:19).

The frequency of the impoverished (1/1) management style, on the other hand, seems low with only three managers rating themselves according to this profile. This result seems to suggest that managers do not view themselves as being regulators and "protectors" of organizational policy and procedures.

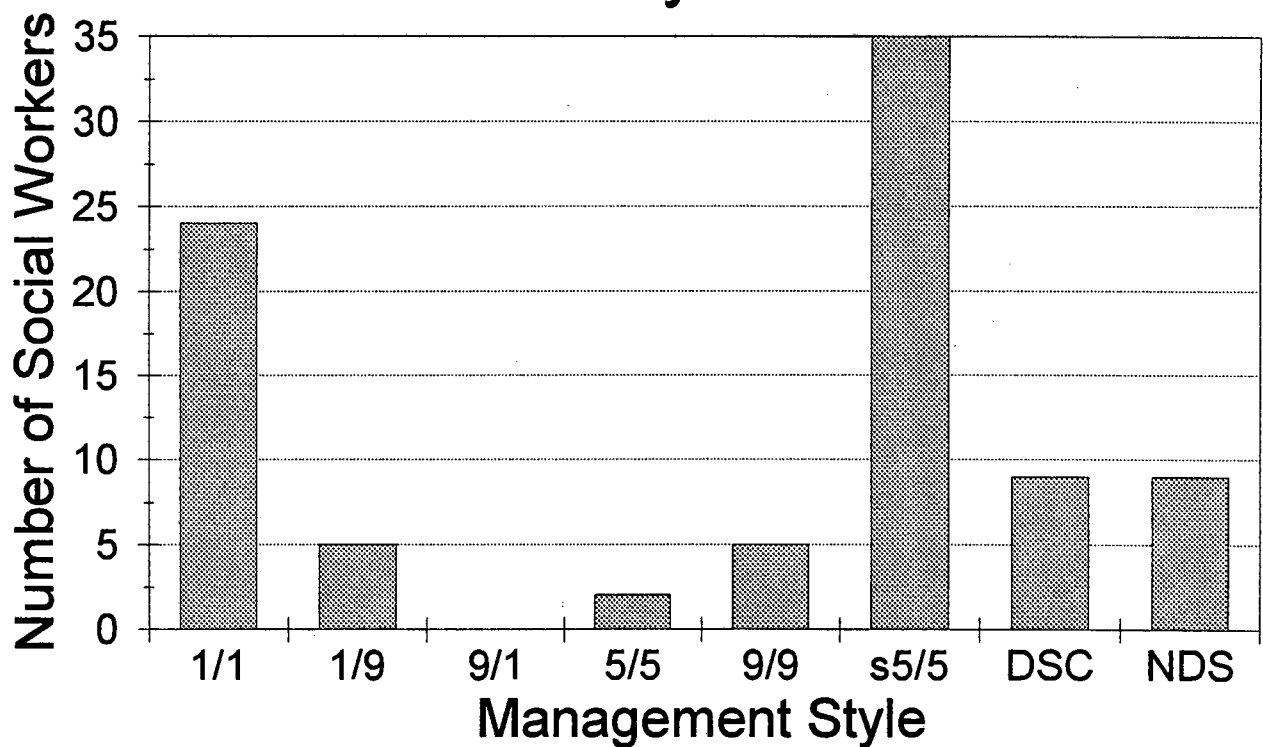
Only one manager assessed herself as having a 1/9 or country club management style. Therefore, whilst it may appear that social work managers may place greater emphasis on people than on task accomplishment, the results of this study do not support this view. However, the lack of managers rating themselves according to the 9/1 style shows that managers do not perceive themselves as manifestly operating in an authority-obedience fashion where productivity is emphasised above worker needs. The 5/5 profile also shows no managers assessing themselves according to this style. Blake and Mouton (1964:222) contend that the statistical 5/5 profile "averages out" to a 5/5 style in terms of the manager's inconsistent and manipulative behaviour. However, the distinction between the two styles is that with the 5/5 approach, the manager is characterised by the use of one style; whereas with the statistical 5/5 profile, the manager will use the four other Grid styles in addition to the 5/5 style in an unpredictable manner. The distinction between these two styles will be maintained within this study in order to define management style as accurately as possible. Maintaining this distinction is significant not only for the purposes of analysing the styles, but also in discussing the implications and effects of the statistical 5/5 profile in particular within the present democratic and developmental context of practice within South Africa.

3.3.6. Responses to the Management Appraisal Survey (MAS)

The results of the MAS show some correlation to those of the SMI in that the statistical 5/5 style is identified as being predominant. However, a significant difference in these results is the increase in the number of 1/1 management profiles which have been identified. Whilst the social work sample is larger, the number of 1/1 profiles is still proportionally greater within this sample than with the SMI results. The graph below illustrates the results of the MAS:

Management Styles

As Identified by Social Workers



KEY:

1/1: Impoverished management
1/9: Country club management
9/1: Authority-obedience style
5/5: Organization-man management

9/9: Team management
s5/5: Statistical 5/5 profile
DSC: Dominant style confusion
NDS: No dominant style

GRAPH 4: Management Styles as Identified by Social Worker Respondents

In percentage terms the frequency of the styles are as follows:

STYLE	PERCENTAGE
1/1	26.9
1/9	5.6
9/1	0
5/5	2.3
9/9	5.6
stat.5/5	39.3
Dominant Style Confusion	10.1
"No Dominant Style" Profile	10.1

TABLE 15: Percentages of Management Styles as Identified by Social Workers

3.3.6.1. Interpretation of the MAS Results

The social work sample clearly identifies management styles as being predominant in two profiles: statistical 5/5 and 1/1 (impoverished management). Many social workers have therefore assessed their managers to be "reading" situations as they manage, that is, they (the managers) are managing according to a situational management style. It has already been noted above that the Statistical 5/5 or opportunist manager will tend to manage subordinates in a 9/1 manner that is, in an authority-obedience style. This result is therefore consistent with the responses to the open-ended questions which indicate a large number of social workers defining management in terms of control and describing dominant management styles as being authoritarian. The statistical 5/5 profile will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 4.

The other significant feature of the MAS results is the high incidence of the 1/1 profile. This result is also consistent with the responses by social workers to the open-ended questions. The manager using a 1/1 style has a low concern for people as well as task accomplishment, and will tend to enforce organizational policies and procedures irrespective of whether these will enhance or retard productivity or worker satisfaction. The 1/1 manager may therefore be viewed as a bureaucrat and may hence be perceived as being authoritarian. This is confirmed in a similar study by Russell, Lankford and Grinnell (1985:163) who also link their results of a high proportion of 1/1 managers to the extensive use of managerial control. In this respect they write: "This style is closely related to a paternalistic 9/1 style of supervision. Decisions were made in the central office and approved by the administrator." Authoritative, bureaucratic decision-making may therefore be considered to be a characteristic of the 1/1 manager. A more in-depth analysis of the 1/1 managerial style will take place in the next chapter. However, both the high frequencies of the statistical 5/5 and 1/1 styles within the social worker sample indicate that the latter mainly perceive managers as generally utilising an authoritarian style.

The high incidence of the 1/1 style in the social work sample seems to be proportional to the number of respondents who identified the "no dominant style" profile in the management sample. The "no dominant style" profile decreases significantly within the social worker sample. The increase in the 1/1 style and the decrease in the "no dominant style" profile in the MAS results could be indicative of social workers perceiving managers as consistent regulators and autocrats, whereas managers view themselves as adhering to a situational management profile using more than one style

unpredictably.

The frequency of dominant style confusion within the social worker sample is also significant in that this number is almost proportional to the number of managers who also rated themselves accordingly. The incidence of the 1/9 and 9/9 styles as identified by the social workers may also be viewed similarly. The other consistency between the results of the two samples is the fact that the 9/1 style was not recorded. Graph 5 compares management styles as identified by the management and social worker samples.

3.4. Brief Summary of Overall Research Results

3.4.1. Responses to the Open-Ended Questions

The first significant outcome of the research study is the responses to the first open-ended question: "How would you define management in general?" Both management and social work samples tended to provide definitions which presented control as being central to the management process. This tended to set the tone for the responses to the other open-ended questions. The description of a dominant managerial style of autocracy featured significantly in the management sample with 25% of managers stating this as being reflective of their organizations. In the social work sample this response rose to 44.9% showing that autocratic management practices are prevalent within organizations. However, 50% of managers described the

dominant managerial style within their organizations as democratic, consultative or moving towards participation whilst only 11.2% of social workers shared this view. In contrast, 38.2% of social workers felt that management styles may be characterised as being supportive.

In evaluating the effectiveness of the styles which managers identified as being dominant within their organizations, 27.5% of the management sample felt that these styles were entirely effective, as opposed to 32.5% who felt that these were completely ineffective, and another 32.5% stating that the dominant styles were partially effective and ineffective. However, the social workers' sample differed from this with 38% stating that the styles which they had identified as being predominant were totally ineffective, whilst only 16.9% indicated that these styles were entirely effective. However, 45% of the social worker sample stated that the dominant styles described were both effective and ineffective.

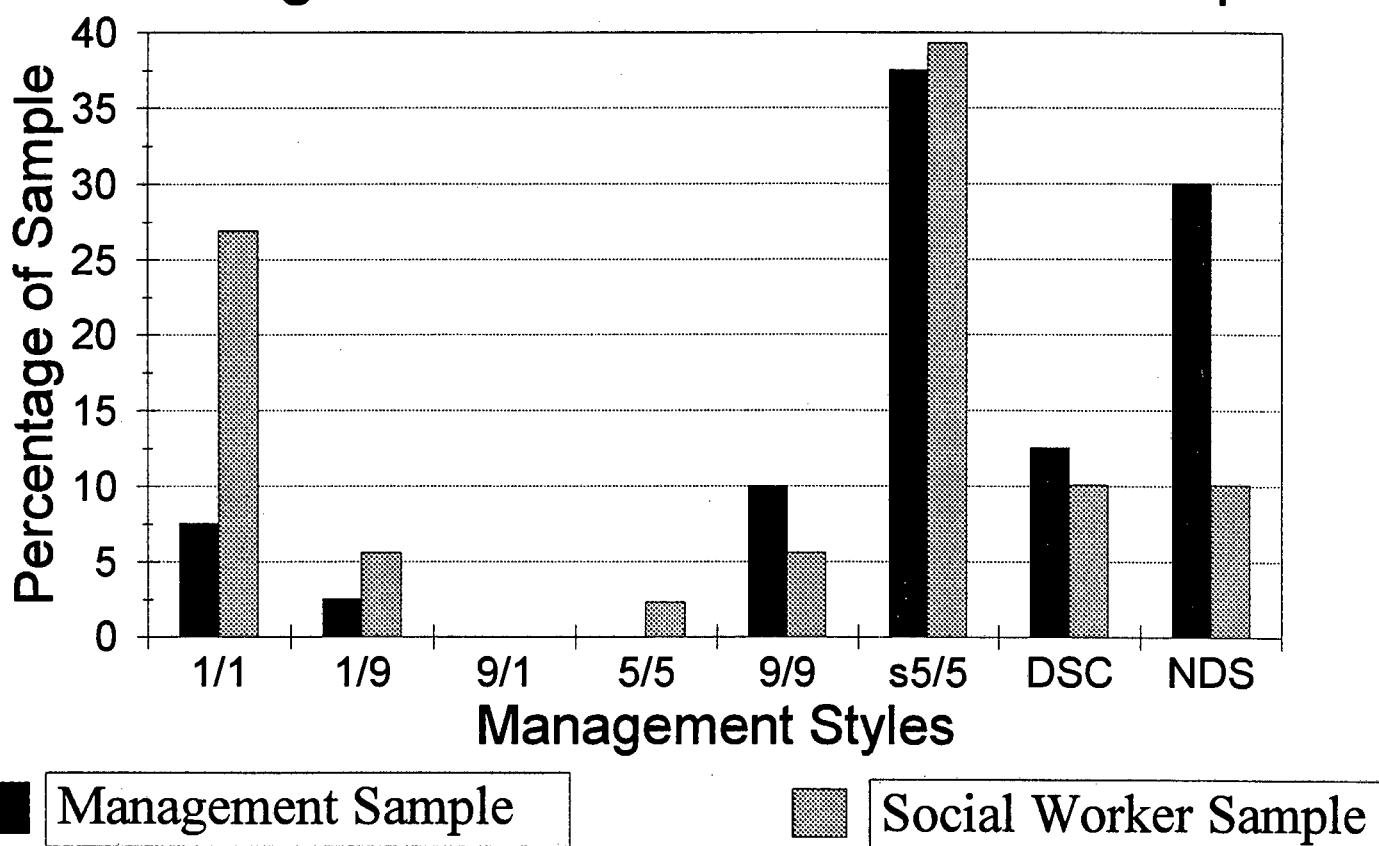
With respect the question on how respondents would like to be managed, both samples overwhelming indicated a desire to be managed in a democratic/participatory manner.

3.4.2. The SMI and MAS Results

Graph 5 and Table 16 below compare the percentages of management styles according to the SMI and MAS results.

Comparison of Styles

Management and Social Worker Samples



KEY:

1/1: Impoverished management
1/9: Country club management
9/1: Authority-obedience style
5/5: Organization-man management

9/9: Team management
s5/5: Statistical 5/5 profile
DSC: Dominant style confusion
NDS: No dominant style

GRAPH 5: Comparison of Management Styles as Identified by Management and Social Worker Samples

It is evident from Graph 5 above that the statistical 5/5 profile is predominant. This is followed by consistencies in the close correlations of the following management styles: 1/9, 9/1 and dominant style confusion. There is a small difference between the higher percentage of the 9/9 style within the management sample and its lower frequency within the sample of social workers. However, the most significant difference in the results is the higher incidence of the 1/1 profile within the social work sample and a proportional decrease in the "no dominant style" profile. In contrast, the management sample showed a lower frequency of the 1/1 style and a significantly higher incidence in the "no dominant style" profile.

Table 16 shows the percentage differences as follows:

STYLE	% of Managers	% of Social Workers
1/1	7.5	26.9
1/9	2.5	5.6
9/1	0	0
5/5	0	2.3
9/9	10	5.6
stat.5/5	37.5	39.3
Dominant Style Confusion	12.5	10.1
"No Dominant Style" Profile	30	10.1

TABLE 16: Comparison of the Percentages of Management Styles within the Management and Social worker Sample

In comparing the results from the two samples, it would appear that the frequency of the situational management style within social work organizations is high owing to the high incidence of the statistical 5/5 and "no dominant style" profiles. The effectiveness of these styles is questionable since they indicate that managers are not predictable nor consistent in their practices. The high 1/1 style rating in the social work sample is consistent with the manager as regulator, authoritarian, and bureaucrat. Both the high incidences of the statistical 5/5 profile and the 1/1 style suggest that generally social work managers are using authoritarian approaches especially with those subordinate to themselves, namely, social workers. The results the SMI and MAS are thus supported by the responses to the open-ended questions.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF MANAGEMENT STYLES IDENTIFIED

4.1. Dominant Management Styles Identified

It is evident from the research results in the previous chapter that certain trends in management style emerge. The results of the open-ended questionnaires indicate predominant definitions of management in terms of control and the identification of dominant autocratic managerial styles within organizations by the majority of respondents. These responses provide some indication of how respondents not only view management, but also how they experience managing and/or being managed. The element of control which emerges as significant within the results of the open-ended questionnaires confirm the nature of the styles which the SMI and MAS results show as being predominant, which are essentially the statistical 5/5 and 1/1 styles. However, all the styles identified through the SMI and MAS results will be discussed within this chapter in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of how managers are engaging within the managerial process in terms of the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid.

The styles which will be analyzed in depth are those which have been identified as being predominant in the SMI and MAS results, and are the following: statistical 5/5, 1/1, dominant style confusion, and the "no dominant style" profile. The 9/9 style,

though not featuring as being characteristic of human services management in the study, will also be analyzed in detail since this is proposed as the ideal style by the Blake and Mouton model, and will be presented as a more effective alternative to current styles predominant within social work management in the Western Cape. Those styles which the results show as featuring to a lesser extent will be discussed in less detail and these are the 1/9, 5/5 and 9/1 profiles. Since the Blake and Mouton (1964 and 1985) model was used as a basis for style identification within this study, these authors will be drawn on extensively in this chapter for the purposes of analysing the managerial styles as mentioned above.

4.2. Statistical 5/5 Profile

This style was identified by the majority of manager and social worker respondents. The statistical 5/5 style is recognised as a situational management profile since all grid styles are employed by the manager in an unprincipled and unpredictable manner according to the manager's assessment of the situation. Situational management models have been advocated for by a variety of writers on management such as Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), Fielder (1967), Reddin (1970) and Hersey and Blanchard (1982) as mentioned in Chapter 2. However, within the social work literature Glisson (1981) specifically argues for a contingency model of social welfare management and administration. Nevertheless, the statistical 5/5 profile as a situational approach to management is viewed by Blake and Mouton (1985) as an opportunist and hence ineffective way of managing. According to Blake and Mouton

(1985:148) opportunism is present "when all Grid styles are relied on in an unprincipled way." Blake and Mouton (1985:154) have compiled a list of characteristics which distinguish the "opportunist", a selection of which is presented below:

- ** all things to all people*
- * aloof to those below*
- * attention-seeking*
- * basks in the limelight*
- * builds reputation by boasting*
- * cagey*
- * favours given with a string attached*
- * hard to pin down*
- * ingratiating*
- * knows people's blind spots and how to exploit them*
- * loyalty to people shifts with their utility*
- * name-dropping for effect*
- * personal rhetoric is unrelated to convictions*
- * premeditates every action*
- * promises anything but delivers only when there is personal payout*
- * self-promoter*
- * smooth operator*
- * stepping-stone philosophy*
- * sweet talks those above but pushes those below*
- * takes credit for whatever he or she can get by with*
- * takes only the initiative that makes him or her look good*
- * takes the initiative to give what superiors seem to want*
- * thinks it important to be number one*
- * What's in it for me?"*

It is evident from the above list that the limitations of this approach are numerous. However, before these are discussed, Blake and Mouton provide a detailed description of the opportunist manager in terms of motivation, conflict management, behavioural elements, and management practices. These will be outlined and discussed in terms of the implications for social work management.

4.2.1. Motivation

The primary motivation of the opportunist manager is that of self-promotion. The actions of this manager are underpinned by the belief that "everyone has a selfish interest that can be appealed to or a vulnerability that can be threatened" (Blake and Mouton 1985:148). The opportunist therefore seeks to engage in actions in exchange for "paybacks," that is, s/he seeks to satisfy a vested interest. The manipulation of people, personal adulation and self-interest are key motivating factors for the opportunist. In social work, it is trite to state that this style poses serious problems for effective management. If the motivation of the opportunist manager is one of exclusive self-interest, the possibility is high that the services to consumers and the needs of the organization and workers will be secondary. Consequently, it would appear that organizations and services will tend to be disadvantaged since the manager will refrain from or resist those actions and roles which will maintain and/or improve organizational functioning and services, unless those actions will enhance the status of or yield other benefits for the manager. Instead, the opportunist manager will tend to direct his/her efforts at that which will benefit him-/herself.

4.2.2. Conflict Management

According to Blake and Mouton (1985:149), the opportunist "prefers to avoid conflict if at all possible, but does not shrink from it when it appears." From this description it would seem that the opportunist would react in different ways to conflict depending

on what the stake is for him-/herself. However, a definite pattern emerges, with the opportunist attempting to gain favour and ensuring that good relations are maintained with those of equal or higher rank, often withdrawing from the conflict if necessary (Blake and Mouton 1985:150). In contrast, with persons of lower rank, the manager is able to manipulate to a greater extent and will attempt to ensure that compliance is gained from the worker, suppressing resistance should this arise. Whilst efforts may be made by the manager to show reasonableness, the attitude towards workers is usually "capitulate or leave" (Blake and Mouton 1985: 150) which is achieved in such a manner that it does not reflect negatively on the manager. Should the conflict continue, the manager may employ tactics which would indirectly coerce the worker to resign by, for example, causing difficulties for the worker by withholding information (Blake and Mouton 1985:150).

Once again it is apparent that with the management of conflict, the opportunist's aim is to ensure that s/he ultimately triumphs. A serious attempt at addressing the cause(s) of the conflict is not given any consideration. This would result in critical issues not being addressed and in social work, as in other work arenas, this would be tantamount to mismanagement as problems may persist and increase. Moreover, the opportunist does not create a positive climate for the expression of conflict by workers who will sense that constructive expression of differences is not tolerated. This may cause conflict to manifest itself in tacit ways, negatively affecting organizational functioning and enabling its resolution to be increasingly difficult as it may eventually contribute towards an unhealthy organizational culture.

4.2.3. Behavioural Elements

Blake and Mouton (1985) identify five key behavioural elements in terms of which each managerial style is evaluated. These are: initiative, inquiry, advocacy, decision-making and critique. The profile of the opportunist manager in terms of these elements is presented below (Blake and Mouton 1985:150-152):

- (a) *Initiative*: It is anticipated that the opportunist exercises initiative with extreme care, ensuring not to take unnecessary risks, but above all to comply with the expectations of superiors. Within social work organizations in South Africa this is particularly problematic since placing the needs of superiors above that of consumers would mean that managerial efforts are not aimed at the alleviation and prevention of social problems, but in meeting the needs of those who hold power within the social service system. Social work management conducted in this way may in itself, therefore, be pathological since it is not primarily directed at improving services or organizational functioning, but at perpetuating and strengthening power relations and/or positions.
- (b) *Inquiry*: The 1/1 manager uses inquiry almost exclusively for ensuring that s/he is updated on what is best for him-/herself. For example, who is influential, who is providing whom with information, and so on. Inquiry is not carried out as a matter of ensuring that the manager is aware of developments within the organization for the benefit of the organization, but is aimed instead at strengthening a position of advantage from which manipulation of events and

people may be continued. The manager's action in this regard may be viewed as being political within the context of the organization. Allen et al (1979:77) in Pfeffer (1981:7) defines organizational politics as: "...intentional acts of influence to enhance or protect the self-interest of individuals or groups." Inquiry conducted in this manner indicates that the manager is primarily interested in those internal organizational processes and dynamics which affect his/her personal or professional status, and not that which would positively affect organizational functioning and services unless these factors have an impact on the manager's position.

- (c) *Advocacy:* With regard to advocacy, the motivation for the personal advancement of the manager is also evident. Blake and Mouton (1985:151) state that the opportunist's "rhetoric is unrelated to personal convictions, since the opportunist advocates whatever values or convictions appeal to others...[thus] positions taken are dictated by the politics of the situation rather than by principles or values known to govern sound and productive human relationships." Within social work management this is problematic since the manager's commitment to certain issues may not be able to be gauged from what s/he says. This will have profound implications particularly for change initiatives needed within organizations especially at the present time in South Africa. Managerial commitment is essential for change to occur in a positive and sustained manner. For example, a manager who professes to be committed to change, but in effect is not presents problems in that change efforts may be delayed, retarded or undermined.

- (d) *Decision-making* is undertaken in a similar fashion of self-promotion as with advocacy. However, with persons of higher rank, the opportunist may tend to "plant" an idea so that the other person takes responsibility for the decision, thus ensuring that s/he is not placed at risk. With persons of lower rank, on the other hand, decision-making is unilateral (Blake and Mouton 1985:152). It is evident that unilateral or autocratic decision-making will not be desirable within social work organizational contexts in South Africa where worker and consumer participation are needed, particularly when workers are unionized or development programmes require consumer participation in decision-making.
- (e) *Critique*: The opportunist is consistent in terms of treating persons of equal or higher rank with respect, whereas with persons of lower rank, the tendency is to be critical and/or negative. However, more importantly is the manager's attitude regarding critique of him-/herself. In the words of Blake and Mouton (1985:152): "The opportunist solicits critique only when the feedback is likely to be favourable. Feedback that might identify weaknesses, limitations, or mistakes is avoided." This holds particular danger in that the opportunist manager displays an unwillingness for scrutiny (possibly including accountability) and indicates a resistance to learn. This would imply that s/he would be resistant to change, or give the impression of changing to please others. In social work settings this approach to management is intensely problematic. It would indicate that managers with this profile are resistant to change at a personal and professional level, possibly also stifling change within others. This will in all likelihood adversely impact upon organizational success

as organizational renewal is thwarted. This scenario could possibly explain the apparent stasis of the social work profession and many social work organizations in South Africa (as discussed in Chapter 1). Blake and Moutons' sketch of the management practices of the opportunist as being synonymous with the 9/1 manager further demonstrates the inappropriateness and ineffectiveness of this style in social work management.

4.2.4. Management Practices

According to Blake and Mouton (1985:152), the opportunist manager assumes a 9/1 manner of operating with subordinates. This means that autocratic practices emphasizing task accomplishment and showing a low concern for people, is characteristic of the opportunist manager's interaction with workers. The management practices of the opportunist manager are presented in terms of the traditional processes of management as follows:

"Planning: 'I plan by setting production requirements and detailing plans to achieve them.'

Organizing: 'I make assignments and tell subordinates what to do, how, when, and with whom.'

Directing: 'I keep in touch with what's going on to ensure that what I have authorized is being followed.'

Controlling: 'I ensure that schedules are being met and move people along faster if progress permits. I criticize, assign blame for deviations, and impose corrective actions.'

Staffing: 'I choose obedient people and force out malcontents. Management development is probably okay but concentrating on selection is what really counts.' "
(Blake and Mouton 1985:28)

The autocratic manner of the opportunist exclusively towards workers appears consistent with the majority of responses to the open-ended questions, where autocratic management styles were described and where social workers in particular expressed the need for their views to be respected and to participate in decision-making.

4.2.5. Limitations of the Statistical 5/5 Profile

In terms of the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid model, the statistical 5/5 or opportunist style is not effective nor desirable for optimal managerial and organizational functioning. It is apparent from the description of the opportunist that his/her motivation, behaviour and managerial practices are primarily directed not for the benefit of the organization, but for self-gain.

The inappropriateness of this style is also shared by other writers on management. For example, McClelland and Burnham (1980:284) express the following view: "...the top manager of a company must possess a high need for power. However, this need must be disciplined and controlled so that it is directed toward the benefit of the institution as a whole and not toward the manager's personal aggrandizement." Therefore, it is the opportunist manager's ability to use and/or misuse power for his/her self-promotion that places him/her at risk of negatively impacting upon the success of the organization. The issue of power is not addressed by those authors who advocate for the situational management approach. Yet, the situational approach virtually places

unlimited power within the ambit of the manager to decide which the most appropriate response within a situation would be. This may result in processes which are highly undesirable owing to the fact that managers are individuals each uniquely different to one another and whose personal biases and preferences may affect the manner in which they assess situations and hence the best style to use. Problems such as racism, sexism, cultural prejudice, and so on may arise as a result of allowing the manager virtual carte blanche in determining and adjusting his/her own style. This is particularly relevant in South Africa where racist legislation has permeated society and its institutions to such an extent that its removal may be gradual and long term. Social work organizations are not exceptions in this regard. Swanson and Brown (1981) recognise that the social work profession also presents opportunities for racism to manifest itself, particularly in the area of management. In this regard, they write: "Supervision is a primary area in which racism presents itself" (Swanson and Brown 1981:65). Within the context of South Africa in particular, the manager's role needs to be one of countering problems such as racism which has become institutionalised owing to apartheid. Peterson (1991:29) has argued for managers to specifically assume the role of countering racism within social work organizations in order to avoid its perpetuation and to prevent these processes from "touching" the therapeutic relationship with clients.

The situational management approach within the context of social work in South Africa would therefore not be proposed as a sound way of engaging within human relationships, firstly since it perpetuates and encourages an unprincipled way of managing which could potentially reinforce racism, sexism and other forms of

prejudice, and secondly since it lacks the elements which counters prejudice, such as, advocating for the equal treatment of employees despite situational variables. Situational management styles therefore do not promote egalitarian management practices which are desired by workers. Hall (1990c:537) supports the view of an egalitarian approach to management when he states that workers wish to be treated in the same manner.

In addition, an empirical study conducted by York and Hastings (1985:44) showed that the situational leadership theory was not supported by empirical evidence in human service settings. The results of the study by York and Hastings therefore support the view that managers need to assume a consistent style, and not to adapt styles according to varying situational factors.

It therefore appears that the statistical 5/5 profile is not desirable for social work managers since it points to incongruency between the goals of the individual manager which are based on self-interest and those of the organization which are concerned with collective interest, and yields itself to further problems such as power abuses through issues such as sexism, racism and ethnocentrism. Especially within a South African context which is attempting to move away from all forms of discrimination, the statistical 5/5 style is clearly inappropriate. This will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5.

Furthermore, the 5/5 manager tends to make unilateral decisions for workers. The lack of participation and consultation by workers undoubtedly leads to dissatisfaction. Not

only did social workers and managers strongly indicate this in the open-ended questionnaires of this study through the preference for a participatory management style, but the need for participation is also supported in the management literature. For example, in a study on participation in the workplace, Miles and Ritchie (1980:278) write: "Managers who least value their subordinates' capabilities and who least often seek their contributions on department issues have the least well satisfied subordinates in our study."

4.3. The 1/1 or Impoverished Management Style

The 1/1 style was prominent in the results of the social worker sample. As mentioned in the previous chapter, this style appears to be tied to the bureaucratic manner in which social workers are experiencing the management process. This view is supported by Blake and Mouton who state that impoverished management is an "unnatural" style, indicative of a type of management which may be labelled bureaupathic, that is, managers who "put pressure on otherwise normal and healthy subordinates to behave in pathological ways" (Jay and Donnell 1990:545). The 1/1 manager places people and production concerns aside in favour of procedure and precedent. Blake and Mouton (1985), as with the statistical 5/5 profile, also provide a detailed analysis of the 1/1 style in terms of motivation, conflict management, behavioural elements, and management practices. These are discussed below and evaluated in terms of social work management in South Africa.

4.3.1. Motivation

The motivation of the 1/1 manager is low, since the aim is merely to remain in the organization and do the minimum required to build seniority without significant effort at contributing towards organizational growth or development (Blake and Mouton 1985:50). The 1/1 manager may be bored, indifferent, apathetic, listless and drifting, yet hides these feelings to maintain a superficial presence. This appearance ensures the avoidance of being controversial, making enemies, or being dismissed (Blake and Mouton 1985:50). This manager, however, may have been "moved" into this mode of operation by the organization itself which presents the person with no further opportunities for promotion so that s/he is merely awaiting retirement (Blake and Mouton 1985:50).

In evaluating the prominence of the above in terms of the social work organizations participating in the study, it would seem to indicate bureaucratic functioning of organizations which are perhaps limiting the opportunities for growth and mobility of managers. The result may be that managers with this style appear unwilling to contribute creatively to organizational success, with the consequence that the services of these organizations are possibly also adversely affected by this process. This managerial style therefore indicates a low commitment to developing services or in ensuring organizational development through people. The likelihood that the disillusionment of the 1/1 manager will negatively impact upon the effectiveness and even the appropriateness of services may therefore be relatively high.

4.3.2. Conflict Management

Possibly the best manner to describe how the 1/1 manager manages conflict is as suggested by Blake and Mouton (1985:51), by the "ostrich dynamic" - burying his/her head to avoid and ignore conflictual situations. The 1/1 manager will therefore attempt to avoid conflict, but when confronted with a situation in which s/he is called upon to intervene, will attempt to employ tactics of delay, neutrality or "nondemonstrative participation", that is, remain vague, abstract or reveal virtually nothing of what s/he is feeling or thinking (Blake and Mouton 1985:51). The conflict may be acknowledged by the manager but there will be no concerted effort to meaningfully address the problem, let alone the root cause(s) thereof. However, in order to cope with conflict the manager will ensure that s/he offends no-one and may acknowledge opposing viewpoints. Another method by which this manager may deal with conflict is by mentally walking out of it and generally dampening resistance (Blake and Mouton 1985:54).

It would appear that with constant attempts by the 1/1 oriented manager to avoid and minimize conflict, the latter may become intensely more pronounced and may manifest itself in various ways within the organization: negatively affecting staff relations, impacting upon services, hampering organizational change and renewal, increasing levels of frustration by organizational participants who may feel that their needs are not addressed, and so on. Ultimately it is possible that conflict may become a key feature of organizational "theory-in-use", that is, the tacit level of organizational functioning as described by Argyris and Schon (1984:358).

The implications which this holds for social work organizations are that workers may become disillusioned with the manager's lack of meaningful response to such an extent that conflict translates into destructive actions, apathy, heightened frustration and general dissatisfaction. Since social workers are the means by which the organization intervenes within client systems, it is possible that the avoidance of conflict by the manager may adversely impact upon services and organizational functioning in general.

4.3.3. Behavioural Elements

The behavioural elements which will be examined are the same as those for the statistical 5/5 profile and these are: initiative, inquiry, advocacy, decision-making and critique.

- (a) *Initiative*: The 1/1 oriented manager displays a severe lack of initiative owing to his/her feelings of apathy and disillusionment. As Blake and Mouton (1985:54) state: "The intent is to stand pat and let things run their course" but when requested to do something s/he will attempt to delegate the task or somehow try to get out of it. This is problematic especially for social work management since managers need to be dynamic, creative and innovative owing to the fact that they are entrusted to work with scarce resources and need to ensure that services are appropriate and as cost-effective as possible.

- (b) *Inquiry*: The 1/1 manager's stance on inquiry is that of distancing him-/herself and merely ensuring that s/he gains the minimum information needed to avoid others from seeing him/her as ignorant (Blake and Mouton 1985:55). Blake and Mouton (1985:55) summarises the 1/1 manager's behaviour in this respect as follows: "...a 1,1 oriented manager is rarely well-informed to be able to respond effectively. If it becomes necessary to deal with an immediate problem, the actions taken are likely to be perfunctory since the manager's knowledge of the issue is so limited." Once again this aspect of 1/1 managerial functioning presents a problem for social work management which requires managers who are constantly well-informed to be able to make sound decisions and operate in the interests of the client community and the organization.
- (c) *Advocacy*: Here the 1/1 manager once again assumes a position of safety, primarily ensuring that s/he does not have to take sides on any particular issue. When pressed for his/her point of view, the response would most probably be one where the manager cannot be fixed to any specific perspective (Blake and Mouton 1985:56). This would be severe limitation within social work management since it would seem that the manager is not committed to, for example, processes of facilitating change on a micro or macro level, that is, within the organization, community or on broader social scale such as lobbying for change in welfare legislation. On the contrary, the actions of the 1/1 manager will tend to stifle growth and change, thus maintaining the status quo even though this may be detrimental to the organization, client community or society at large. The need for social work managers to assume roles of

advocacy is especially significant and crucial at a time of transition in South Africa where democratic principles need to be tested and maximized particularly for the benefit of previously disenfranchised clients. The 1/1 style therefore does not present as being appropriate within the South African context. This will be further discussed in the next chapter.

- (d) *Decision-making:* Blake and Mouton (1985:56) state that the 1/1 manager "defers rather than decides" and will attempt to opt out of taking responsibility. Therefore, s/he will tend to delegate, preferring to be a figure-head. This may work in certain incidences with the provision that workers are competent and adequately informed to make sound decisions. However, a manager who fails to fulfil an effective leadership role in terms of decision-making, will in all likelihood contribute to the failure of teams or individuals to provide effective services, such as in the social work profession. Decision-making is a key component of the management process and the manner in which this task is undertaken is crucial in creating a positive climate of worker confidence, participation and cohesion. Resistance by the 1/1 manager to take responsibility for decision-making, may result in negative consequences such as worker dissatisfaction, insecurity and frustration, and organizationally it could entail the thwarting of growth and development. The potential for organizational stagnation is greater especially within social work organizations where social workers are the direct service providers whose performances determine organizational functioning in terms of service quality.

Managers desisting from decision-making also present problems in terms of accountability. Managerial accountability is crucial within social work, and attempts at opting out of assuming this responsibility may create further problems within organizational functioning and hence service provision.

- (e) *Critique:* The 1/1 manager will tend to resist criticising workers and avoid introspection since s/he has a low concern for task accomplishment (Blake and Mouton 1985:57). Should the manager, however, be required to provide some form of feedback it is most likely that this will be vague and obscure, as is consistent with his/her actions in other aspects of work. It is evident that the 1/1 manager displays no interest in learning or transformation. Within social work management, this will result in the maintenance of prevailing practices be they productive or, more likely, counterproductive to the needs of the client system and the organization.

4.3.4. Management Practices

Blake and Mouton's (1985:57) sketch of the management practices of the 1/1 oriented manager is presented below. This analysis shows that the 1/1 manager tends to assign tasks to workers and allows them to complete these tasks as they see fit.

"Planning: 'I give broad assignments though I avoid specifics when possible. Subordinates are responsible for themselves.'

Organizing: 'Subordinates carry out assignments since they know their own jobs and capabilities better than anyone else. I expect them to coordinate with one another.'

Directing: 'I carry the word from those above to those below. I pass the message and with as little embellishment or interpretation as possible.'

Controlling: 'I make the rounds, but I take little on-the-spot action if I can avoid it. They like it that way; I do, too.'

Staffing: 'I take whomever they give me.' "

From the above it is apparent that the practices employed by the 1/1 oriented manager are not in the interests of task achievement, nor therefore in promoting the success of the organization since s/he appears indifferent toward both. The fact that a significant percentage of social workers identified the 1/1 managerial profile within their organizations is therefore a cause of concern since this style presents many limitations for social work management in particular.

4.3.5. Limitations of the 1/1 Management Style

The primary concern which the 1/1 style of management raises is that the productivity of workers and hence that of the organization will undoubtedly be adversely influenced by the indifferent attitude and behaviours of the manager. The relationship between the practices of the manager and the level of organizational productivity has been confirmed in a study by Hall (1990c: 537) who reports the following: "... the results strongly suggest that *organizational productivity varies as the frequency of productive practices varies among individual managers.*" The consequences of the 1/1 manager's

low motivation to perform are aptly described by Blake and Mouton (1985:59) when they write: "Inherent in the 1/1 approach is 'inertia.' To the degree that the 1/1 style is present throughout an organizational culture, the organizational performance drifts toward less and less. Necessary actions are not taken and the long-term outcome is failure." The prominence of the 1/1 style as identified by the social worker sample in this study indicates that many managers are operating in ways which negatively affect organizational functioning and which may ultimately lead to organizational stasis since the manager is disinterested in taking initiative, engaging in decision-making and advocacy, and facilitating change.

The high incidence of the 1/1 style also appears to confirm that social workers are managed in an autocratic and bureaucratic manner through the enforcement of organizational policies and procedures. However, more importantly is the effect which the 1/1 style of management has on workers, the organization and services in bureaucratically emphasising adherence to organizational rules and policies. The problem which bureaucracy poses when it extends through managerial behaviour is that it tends to dampen the motivation and willingness of workers to co-operate and provide quality services owing to the rigid, uncreative and indifferent attitude of the manager. In substantiating this view, Blau and Meyer (1971:59) state: "Detailed rules, even if they improve organizational performance, prevent adaptation to changing situations. Strict discipline, even if it facilitates managerial direction, creates resentments that reduce effort."

therefore be viewed as using a situational approach to managing. The situational management style as it manifests in the statistical 5/5 profile has already been discussed extensively in this chapter owing to it being the most prevalent. However, it may be concluded that the frequency of situational management styles are higher than merely the number of respondents which clearly indicated a statistical 5/5 profile, since the "no dominant style" profile may also be viewed as a situational approach to managing.

4.5. Dominant Style Confusion

Dominant style confusion is when the differences between the two highest T-scores of the SMI or MAS is below 10, that is, too small to be able to indicate a singular dominant style. Five managers and nine social workers identified this profile and in analysing these results, the following styles were found to be confused as presented in the tables below:

Styles Confused (Management Sample)	Number of Respondents
1/1 and 9/9	2
1/1 and 1/9	1
5/5 and 9/9	1
1/9 and 9/9	1

TABLE 19: Analysis of the Dominant Styles confused as Identified by the Management Sample

Styles Confused (Social Workers Sample)	Number of Respondents
1/1 and 9/1	3
1/9 and 9/9	3
1/1 and 1/9	2
1/9 and 5/5	1

TABLE 20: Analysis of the Dominant Styles confused as Identified by the Social Worker Sample

It is evident from the above that there is no definite pattern with respect to the style combinations which constitute the dominant style confusion profile. These results show managers displaying style combinations which are the exception, rather than the norm. The manager with this profile restricts him-/herself to two style options whereas the manager with the "no dominant style" profile will employ three or four style alternatives, and the individual with the statistical 5/5 profile will use five style options. However, in using only two styles interchangeably, dominant style confusion does not necessarily imply that this profile is more desired than those discussed previously in this chapter. Dominant style confusion may also be viewed as a situational approach to management since the manager adjusts his/her style in accordance with situational variables albeit restricting him-/herself to two styles. The limitations of dominant style confusion is therefore similar to that of the situational 5/5 profile in that it lacks consistency. However, another limitation of dominant style confusion is that the tensions between the different, even opposing styles being used by the manager are more pronounced. For example, Table 20 shows two social workers indicating that their managers confuse styles 9/9 and 1/1. These styles are antithetical to one another

and imply very different behaviours and attitudes. This inconsistency may cause workers to feel insecure about how the manager may react, or they may be caught within the tensions created in the use of both styles such as being limited by the bureaucratic requirements of the 1/1 style whilst also being encouraged to be creative and innovative owing to the 9/9 approach. Ultimately, therefore the dominant style confusion profile is not a desirable one.

4.6. The 9/9 or Team Management Style

This style has been identified by four managers and five social workers. Whilst it may not be considered to be characteristic of social work management per se, there seems to be a small selection of managers who employ the 9/9 approach. Since the Blake and Mouton model proposes this style as the ideal and the most effective owing to the integration of organization and worker goals, this managerial orientation shall be examined in detail within this chapter. It is proposed that the 9/9 style is the most appropriate for social work in South Africa, as it is congruent with the requirements of change and democracy. Therefore this style will be examined according to the factors of motivation, conflict management, behavioural elements, and management practices as has already been done with the statistical 5/5 and the 1/1 profiles.

4.6.1. Motivation

Since the 9/9 approach assumes that there is a necessary connection between worker needs and desires and the organizational goals of productivity, the manager with this profile works towards organizational goals as if they were his/her personal objectives and influences others to do the same. Blake and Mouton (1985:82) submit that this has positive spinoffs since the "... 'can-do' spirit is contagious, inspires a 'win' attitude in others, and promotes enthusiasm, voluntarism, spontaneity, and openness." This approach to managing would therefore be effective within social work settings since the aim in social work in particular is to harness the altruistic aims of the helper or enabler to effect change within the client system by means of organizational programmes or activities. A managerial perspective which integrates work and personal goals is needed in social work owing to (i) the nature of the intervention is people-centred, and (ii) the investment of the worker within the process of intervention is a key feature of social work practice.

4.6.2. Conflict Management

The 9/9 manager manages conflict both in terms of the effective prevention or minimization thereof, as well as in its resolution. In preventing conflict, Blake and Mouton (1985:83-84) outline five techniques which the 9/9 manager employs. These are:

- (i) Early involvement: The manager involves others in the early stages of problem-solving so that alternatives may be sought and tested.
- (ii) Exchanging background viewpoints and sharing perspectives: The manager facilitates a process whereby each person is able to express his/her differing viewpoints so that misunderstandings and misperceptions are identified and addressed. This is intended to decrease the disruption of conflict.
- (iii) Self-disclosure within the framework of one's job description: This is aimed at ensuring that no information is withheld that is relevant to problem solving and which has an impact on organizational functioning. Issues such as feelings, intuition, logic and data need to be expressed in order to enable a deeper insight into the situation by everyone concerned.
- (iv) Clear communication: The manager communicates in a manner which does not create conflict or animosity.
- (v) Developing criteria: This entails facilitating a process whereby agreement is gained regarding the solution of a problem before implementation which serves to avoid conflict and generate a wider range of (better) solutions.

It is therefore apparent that the 9/9 manager firstly attempts to solicit the feelings and ideas of workers regarding potential problems before implementing solutions. The latter are tested and efforts are made to communicate in an open and honest manner

in order to ensure that obstacles such as misunderstandings and distortions of ideas or feelings does not hamper the work or problem solving process. The manager is a facilitator not only of the process, but also a member of a team, and actively anticipates potential problems and situations of conflict instead of waiting for problems to appear or conflict to fester and disrupt.

In the management of conflict when it appears, the 9/9 manager may use the following techniques as outlined by Blake and Mouton (1985:84-86):

- (i) **Confrontation:** A distinction is drawn between confrontation-as-combat which is a contest of wills, and confrontation-as-comparison-and-contrast which entails the resolution of differences involving mutual trust by opponents. The latter is used by the 9/9 manager since this approach to confrontation shifts the focus from who is right to what is right. The issues being debated is therefore given priority over the persons involved.
- (ii) **Awareness of personal needs and expectations:** This enables persons to be aware of and express the needs and expectations of self and others, thereby facilitating the positive resolution of conflict.
- (iii) **Ventilation:** Relieving the tension of the situation by discussing issues with a third party.

- (iv) Review and feedback from a neutral person: This enables persons enmeshed within a conflict to obtain a neutral response from someone who does not have a vested interest in the situation.
- (v) Moving to a previously accepted understanding: Should conflict persist an agreement may be reached whereby the parties may shift to a prior level or mode of understanding.

The 9/9 manager therefore resolves conflict in a constructive, transparent manner. Conflict management undertaken in this manner is particularly healthy in gaining and maintaining the respect of others, and in developing and possibly also enhancing working relationships. This style of management would therefore be particularly valuable in industrial relations in the event of the unionisation of social workers in South Africa.

4.6.3. Behavioural Elements

- (a) *Initiative*: The 9/9 manager uses initiative with spontaneity and enthusiasm, positively influencing others to be involved in new ventures. However, initiatives are weighted in terms of priority and planning which is followed through by testing to ensure soundness (Blake and Mouton 1985:87). This approach to management would therefore be an advantage within social work in South Africa where practitioners need to engage in new endeavours in order for

services to become more relevant according to the present developmental requirements of the country which are discussed in the next chapter.

(b) *Inquiry*: The 9/9 manager places an emphasis on being informed of developments, with clear distinctions being made between fact and opinion (Blake and Mouton 1985:87). Inquiry is conducted in an in-depth and comprehensive manner, and carried out on a team-basis so that multiple perspectives are considered resulting in increased creativity in the solution of problems, as opposed to when this is done exclusively by the manager (Blake and Mouton 1985:88). Key features of the 9/9 means of inquiry is open and active listening, and two-way questioning between management and workers (Blake and Mouton 1985:87). Within the social work environment this will enable increased creativity and teamwork, and will be especially valuable in the management of community development teams which are expected to feature more prominently in the social work arena owing to social development requirements as outlined in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994).

(c) *Advocacy*: The 9/9 oriented manager displays a readiness for advocacy based on his/her convictions, values and opinions whilst still being open to new ideas and alternative perspectives (Blake and Mouton 1985:88). This is crucial since "strong advocacy increases the likelihood that every viewpoint receives the attention it merits" (Blake and Mouton 1985:88). In social work, strong advocacy is crucial within the new democratic context of South Africa since it will be

important for social work managers to be at the forefront in advocating on behalf of consumers and with regard to social change initiatives which form part of the social developmental processes taking place in the country.

- (d) *Decision-making*: For the 9/9 manager, decisions result through inquiry and advocacy and are not the manager's sole prerogative (Blake and Mouton 1985:89). Decisions may, however, involve only the manager or the manager with one or more workers who are directly affected by the decision which is being made so that the wastage of human resources is avoided. Team members are then advised of a decision reached as it has bearing on their work. Blake and Mouton (1985:89) feel that decision-making under the 9/9 profile includes "everyone who is involved" and that it is unrealistic to expect everyone to be involved all of the time. Meaningful participation in decision-making is therefore advocated within this approach. Miles and Ritchie (1980:281) support this view when they state: "A good manager obviously does not regularly 'stop the presses' and call a conference. [S]He has confidence in his [or her] subordinates' abilities to handle problems as they appear and to call him [or her] in when the problem demands attention." The 9/9 style of managing therefore encourages meaningful participation as a means of more effective problem-solving, rather than the mere consultation of people for the sake thereof. This is particularly important within the social work arena since human resources need to be conserved for effective intervention, and not strained through misdirected and unnecessary activities which are construed to be "democracy."

- (e) *Critique*: Within the 9/9 approach to managing, critique is viewed as part of the process of learning. Therefore, the manager is not only self-critical and open to critique from others, but also ensures that critique occurs throughout the work process and not just at certain points during the accomplishment of tasks (Blake and Mouton 1985:93). Social work managers who assume this style will therefore be more open to constructive criticism and thereby place more emphasis on their performance and effectiveness as managers. This may have positive results since the importance of management development may be realised and reinforced in this way.

The 9/9 manager's double-loop approach to learning has already been discussed in the previous chapter. However, the implicit morphogenetic orientation of the 9/9 style is further evident in the openness and candour (Blake and Mouton 1985:93) which characterise the process and manner of critique.

4.6.4. Management Practices

A basic tenet of the 9/9 management style is participation-centred teamwork (Blake and Mouton (1985:93). This is crucial since workers will tend to be committed to those decisions which they understand and have a stake in implementing. Blake and Mouton (1985:93) define this more clearly when they write: "The full complexity of the situation is more likely to be comprehended when those who share responsibility for specific

outcomes pool information and judgement. Then, alternative solutions can be assessed through collaborative thinking and high-quality decisions are made." The 9/9 style is also presented by Blake and Mouton (1985:94) in terms of the following processes of management:

- "Planning:* 'I get the people who have relevant facts and/or stakes in the outcome together to review the whole picture. We formulate a sound model of an entire project from the start to completion. I get their reactions and ideas. I establish goals and flexible schedules with them.'
- Organizing:* 'We determine individual responsibilities, procedures and ground rules.'
- Directing:* 'I keep informed of progress and influence subordinates to identifying problems and revising goals or action steps with them. I assist when needed by helping to remove barriers.'
- Controlling:* 'In addition to critiques to keep projects on schedule, I conduct a wrap-up of those responsible. We evaluate the way things went to see what we have learned and how we can apply it to future projects. I give recognition on a team basis as well as for outstanding individual contributions.'
- Staffing:* 'Work requirements are matched with personnel capabilities or needs in deciding who is to do what.' "

It is apparent from the above that the manager attempts to build a climate of learning, co-operation and trust. This creates conditions which enable a greater reliance on self-direction and self-control as opposed to authoritarian styles where hierarchical control is emphasised and enforced. Another feature of the 9/9 style is that it presupposes the equitable treatment of workers since all are exposed to the same managerial style, which is not varied in accordance with situational variables, for example, the perceived level of worker maturity or motivation as advocated by the Situational Leadership model of Hersey and Blanchard (1982).

4.6.5. Limitations of the 9/9 Management Style

It is evident from the above analysis of the 9/9 manager that s/he needs to be willing to share power, responsibility, engage in learning, and to facilitate rather than dictate. This requires a person who has attained a certain level of psychological and job maturity, so that s/he feels secure in leading as opposed to prescribing. A relatively high level of skill in communication, and in interpersonal and group relations is also required of the 9/9 manager so that teamwork is enhanced and workers are able to perceive genuineness on the part of the manager and not a "forced" attempt at participation. Very often managers need specific training in order to develop these skills and to increase their self-confidence as leaders and facilitators. Within social work, management development programmes need to be initiated for the enhancement of these personal and interpersonal skills. This may prove to be a costly and long term process. Moreover, the organizational context would also need to facilitate this growth. The 9/9 manager would tend to function optimally within an organizational environment which facilitates this style, but s/he may experience problems with this approach in an organization which is highly bureaucratized and/or where different management approaches are not tolerated.

However, a limitation with the approach itself is that it provides for the manager to "select" the appropriate people for the tasks which match their abilities, or to involve only those people in decision-making who are considered to be able to solve the problem or is affected by it. This may cause conflict amongst organizational members who may feel that they are being excluded from activities and decision-making even

though they may not be affected by these outcomes. Within the present context of South Africa where democracy is commonly construed to mean that every participant should be involved in decision-making all the time, the 9/9 profile may be viewed as creating problems such as the formation of power groups or cliques within organizations.

Nevertheless, the 9/9 style is centred around the meaningful participation of workers on a team basis and though this may not be considered to be appropriate by all players in the field of social work, it presently provides a more effective, dynamic and necessary departure from present trends of management.

4.7. The 1/9 or Country Club Management Style

This managerial style entails a high concern for people coupled with a low concern for task accomplishment. Whilst it may seem that many social work managers operate in this manner owing to social work values which emphasise the needs of people, the research results have shown that this style is not characteristic of social work managers included in the study since only one manager and five social workers identified this style. Nevertheless, this is an indication that a very small number of managers do hold this profile and it is therefore necessary to provide a brief analysis of the 1/9 style.

The underlying assumption of the 1/9 manager is that work requirements are in conflict or interfere with the needs and aspirations of workers (Blake and Mouton 1985:36). Therefore, the manager's behaviours are such that s/he seeks approval, friendship and camaraderie from workers resulting in perhaps unintentionally neglecting the achievement of work goals. This manager is thus uncomfortable with conflict which threatens friendly relations. S/he will tend to accept the position of another for the sake of maintaining peace, may apologise, smooth over differences, use humour to reduce tension or downplay pressure (Blake and Mouton 1985:39-40).

The 1/9 oriented leader will be helpful and positive to the initiatives taken by others in order to gain approval, but his/her own initiative is relatively low (Blake and Mouton 1985:42). With respect to inquiry, this manager will tend to engage in thorough information-gathering should this gain approval, yet inquiry will tend to be shallow should it relate to his/her own responsibilities (Blake and Mouton 1985:42). The most common manner in which the 1/9 manager may be described in terms of his/her stance on advocacy is that s/he is a "yes man/woman," that is, reluctant to assume a stance on particularly controversial issues. Actions will tend to be vague or indirect and will probably not adversely affect anyone (Blake and Mouton 1985:43).

The 1/9 manager appears ambivalent when it comes to decision-making. Decisions which are widely accepted will be shared, whilst difficult decisions may be postponed or an attempt will be made not to take responsibility for these (Blake and Mouton 1985:44). The same pattern may be observed with respect to critique. The manager will tend to provide only positive feedback to workers. Responsibility for negative

feedback will be avoided, and instead attributed to someone else (Blake and Mouton 1985:44).

It is therefore apparent that the 1/9 manager creates a safe and comfortable climate for both him-/herself and the workers. The manager is most probably agreeable, well-liked and respected by staff members, even though productivity may consequently be low (Blake and Mouton 1985:45).

4.7.1. Limitations of the 1/9 Management Style

The primary limitation of this management style is the fact that the manager, whilst emphasising human relationships as being salient within the work environment, tends to neglect task accomplishment with the result that organizational functioning in this respect may suffer. Within the context of social work organizations, this style may indirectly impact upon the quality and nature of services in a negative manner since worker needs are considered more important than those of clients or the organization as a whole.

Another limitation of this style, is that not all workers appreciate the safe and comfortable environment created by the manager. Certain workers who thrive on challenges may experience the manager's caring as superficial, stifling growth and creativity (Blake and Mouton 1985:46). Herzberg's study of human motivation and work may also serve to support this position. Herzberg (1984:339) submits that the

following factors contribute to work satisfaction: achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement. The 1/9 manager, in tending to "protect" workers, may also therefore be limiting opportunities for growth and restricting prospects for challenges within the work environment which may result in worker dissatisfaction.

4.8. The 5/5 or Organization-Man Management Style

The 5/5 management style has only been identified by two respondents in the social worker sample and did not feature in the results of the management sample. This style is therefore an exception in the social work organizations included in the study. Like the 1/9 orientation, the 5/5 approach also assumes that work and worker needs are incompatible. However, the manager believes that in moderately emphasizing work goals, workers will find this more acceptable and satisfactory (Blake and Mouton 1985:65).

The motivation of the 5/5 manager is one where the aim is to establish good standing amongst colleagues, and not to challenge existing organizational practices and policies (Blake and Mouton 1985:65-66). This attitude is consistent in conflict management as the manager assumes a safe stance which is evident in the following tactics used by the 5/5 manager in dealing with conflict (Blake and Mouton 1985:68-71):

- (i) In order to prevent conflict the manager may refrain from deviating from organizational protocol, opt to make rules for the prevention of conflict, avoid

taking a public stand on a contentious issue, and emphasize similarities and minimize differences.

- (ii) In managing conflict when it appears, the 5/5 manager will tend to compromise, separate those in disagreement, accept an impasse (agree to disagree), or distance him-/herself from the issue or person.

However, with regard to initiative, the 5/5 manager appears almost apathetic, tending to adhere to that which is prescribed and defined by the status quo. Inquiry, too, tends to be shallow should it go beyond prescribed policies and rules. In addition, the 5/5 manager tends to observe the informal aspects of organizational functioning to keep abreast of developments (Blake and Mouton 1985:71).

In terms of advocacy, the 5/5 manager, in keeping with a safe stance will abstain from that which is controversial. This manager's convictions will therefore tend to be determined by what is politically safe and acceptable (Blake and Mouton 1985:73). However, alternative ways of achieving results may be to "bend the truth" or tell white lies, which may not be considered to be entirely negative since the outcome would justify the means used (Blake and Mouton 1985:73). In decision-making, the 5/5 oriented leader (like the 1/9 manager) also readily makes easy and acceptable decisions, but will tend to hesitate before engaging in unpopular choices. A way around making difficult decisions may be the delegation of authority, or allowing popularity to determine a course of action even though this may objectively not be sound (Blake and Mouton 1985:74). Finally, with respect to critique, the 5/5 manager feels more comfortable in providing positive feedback. Direct negative feedback will

be avoided and "disguised" by, for example, sandwiching a negative comment between two compliments. This approach to feedback may result in confusion since communication is not clear or direct (Blake and Mouton 1985:74-75).

It is apparent from this analysis that the 5/5 manager assumes the "safe path," tending to conform and adhere to organizational policies and practices. It is unlikely that this manager will challenge the status quo, or direct workers in a commanding fashion. As stated by Blake and Mouton (1985:75): "The approach is to request and to persuade people to want to work rather than to exert formal authority."

4.8.1. Limitations of the 5/5 Management Style

The primary concern with this management style is the fact that the manager resists change and uncritically accepts organizational functioning, structures, policies and procedures. This may result in the entrenchment of organizational dysfunction, which may be compounded by this manager's unethical behaviour in tending to "bend the truth" to gain results. In social work organizations, this style will not be desirable since firstly an adherence to the status quo counters organizational renewal which is necessary particularly within the changed context of democracy in South Africa, and secondly, the use of dishonesty to influence workers and others does not present as an effective means of building trust and engendering sound working relationships within the work environment.

Another limitation of the 5/5 style is the lack of initiative, advocacy and creativity. It is evident that this manager will not encourage new ideas, explore alternatives, attempt to engage in creative problem solving, or even recognise these as assets within workers. The rate at which improvements in services or organizational functioning may be effected, may therefore be greatly retarded with the use of the 5/5 style. This "status quo" manager may instead encourage workers to assume his/her "safe" stance and attitude thus further causing frustration and regression, and thereby possibly also a waste of human resources.

4.9. The 9/1 or Authority-Obedience Management Style

This style was not identified by either the management or the social worker samples. The significance of the fact that 9/1 management styles were not recorded in this study shows that social work managers in South Africa are not adhering to a pure scientific management style which the 9/1 style essentially presents. However, the 9/1 approach manifests as part of the statistical 5/5 profile, especially in the authoritarian practices of the manager toward workers. The 9/1 style is also very close to the 1/1 style in terms of authoritarian decision-making. Therefore, whilst it may be assumed that the 9/1 style does not feature as being a dominant approach within the organizations included in this study, it features as an important component of the statistical 5/5 or opportunist profile in particular which is prevalent.

the people to collectively improve the quality of their lives. The RDP thus presents a deliberate attempt by the State to involve itself within the field of development.

Whilst in South Africa this is crucial given the inequalities which became entrenched as a result of apartheid, statist intervention needs to be critically examined in order to assess whether the RDP will in fact realise that which it is supposed to achieve. The first concern is whether the RDP is a document which provides prescriptions for development in a "top-down" manner or whether it is indeed people-driven as it purports to be. De Graaf (1986:7-8) is critical of the concept of top-down development initiatives where people are provided with the proverbial "fishing-rod" of empowerment, yet ultimately cannot exert control over the resources which they may utilize to gain greater control over their lives. Participation is therefore a critical element of any development strategy if people are seriously intended to control their own destinies. Therefore, whilst the RDP calls for consumer participation at all levels of development processes, this needs to be implemented in practice so that a paternalistic approach to development does not result instead.

Midgley (1987:11) raises another concern with regard to State development programmes which, as a result of centralization, becomes increasingly bureaucratised and hence progressively more costly, often also becoming divorced from the issues of mass poverty, and eventually stagnating. Whilst the RDP aims to develop grassroots structures (RDP Forums) which will interface with government departments in planning and prioritizing development programmes, the possibility exists that this process may not work as intended and may be retarded by bureaucratic constraints,

power interests and political alliances. It would therefore entail a commitment by politicians, communities and bureaucrats to ensure that the process adheres to that as outlined in the RDP: transparency, with meaningful participation by the people. Despite these possible hazards, it is within this programme of national action that social work finds itself.

5.2. The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (1994)

The most important guiding principles of the RDP are the following:

- (i) It prioritizes the basic needs of people that have to be met through multiple intervention programmes.
- (ii) It recognises that pervasive and structural poverty is the main problem facing the people of South Africa.
- (iii) It aims to empower people through active participation within the programme and its implementation, and by emphasizing capacity-building, education, redistribution of resources, economic growth, affirmative action, social change and transparency.
- (iv) It recognises that racism, sexism and other forms of prejudice need to be eradicated at all levels in South African society.
- (v) It aims to be inclusive and holistic in addressing the developmental needs of particularly those South Africans who were disadvantaged by apartheid.

This scenario is a stark difference to the policies of apartheid under which social work assumed a social control function as has already been argued in Chapter 1. The focus by the present government is on change, and for social work this would imply a move away from a predominantly conservation position of social control to one of social development and action. The subsection within the RDP (page 19) on social security and social welfare distinguishes this more clearly, with paragraph 2.13.2. summarising the main principle which will affect social work:

"The RDP aims to transform the existing social welfare policies, programmes and delivery systems so as to ensure basic welfare rights are provided to all South Africans, prioritising those who have been historically disadvantaged."

This presents a divergence from the way in which social work operated before and during the apartheid period. Whereas prior to democracy social services were mainly directed at the needs of white people, priorities now have to change in favour of previously disenfranchised people with the added dimension that welfare is perceived as a right and not a privilege. This principally seeks to achieve two objectives, namely, that:

- (i) the redistribution of social service resources may be realised and,
- (ii) those who are experiencing severe poverty owing to apartheid legislation and are therefore most needy, may now have the right to benefit from welfare services in order to improve their lives.

However, the RDP proposes additional features for social welfare which also have particular relevance to managers. These are:

- (i) *Basic needs.* Basic needs and development are prioritized, with basic needs being perceived as all aspects of living which contribute to the well-being of society such as shelter, food, health care, employment and income security (paragraph 2.13.3).
- (ii) *Affirmative action.* The redressing of past imbalances through affirmative action so that previously disadvantaged groups such as women, youth, and people in rural communities are ensured welfare benefits to promote their quality of living (paragraph 2.13.4.2). Affirmative action is also needed within the welfare services themselves as noted in paragraph 2.13.18: "Social service managers must be trained with due regard to the need for affirmative action."
- (iii) *Community participation.* The participation by communities within the process of deciding upon their needs and how these will be addressed is essential (paragraph 2.13.4.2). Community participation is also necessary in the processes of planning, co-ordination and evaluation of social services (paragraph 2.13.7.4).
- (iv) *The role of civil society.* The role of institutions of civil society within welfare, such as non-governmental organizations, civic associations, religious groups, trade unions, and traditional healers is formally recognised (paragraph 2.13.4.4).

- (v) *Developmental approach.* Paragraph 2.13.18 states that many social workers need to be retrained according to a developmental approach to welfare.
- (vi) *Community development workers.* The RDP specifies that within a five-year period a minimum of 3000 community development personnel needs to be trained to facilitate the prioritization of community needs and the allocation of resources (paragraph 2.13.18). It is not specified whether these development workers will be trained differently from social workers. However, since the RDP also calls for the reviewing of the social work and community development curricula, it may be assumed that these persons will not necessarily be social workers, but instead a category of workers specifically trained for community development in South Africa.
- (vii) *Intersectoral co-ordination.* The RDP calls for increased co-ordination between sectors such as child care, mental health, women, etc so that integrated strategies are achieved, as well as improved co-ordination between social welfare and health, labour and community development sectors (paragraph 2.13.19).

It is evident from these principles embodied within the RDP that the social work field of practice is and will continue to change rapidly. The fundamental orientations of the profession will consequently have to change in terms of effectively addressing basic needs; ensuring consumer participation; assuming a social development focus; and working in co-operation with development workers, related sectors, and civil society.

The aim is to ensure that social work is relevant within the South African context of poverty, that intervention programmes empower users through participation and transparency, and that programmes constitute an integrated and effective response to problems as opposed to previously fragmented and piecemeal attempts at social work provision. This scenario requires managers who are able to successfully take social work as a profession and practice through these changes so that it is able to fulfil its more appropriate function of community empowerment and development, and also increasingly takes the initiative in the development of more improved and effective social services. An effective managerial style will be a vital attribute in enabling this process since style characterises the manner in which the manager exercises leadership and guides decision-making (Weil 1988:72). Elements of an effective management style given the requirements of the RDP are proposed as follows:

- (i) the style needs to be change-oriented, that is, the manager needs to be a change agent
- (ii) participatory management is essential
- (iii) the management process has to be transparent
- (iv) action learning is a crucial management skill
- (v) management needs to be an empowering and not a disempowering process
- (vi) managers as entrepreneurs are needed.

These features will be examined below in terms of the predominant opportunist and 1/1 impoverished management styles identified in Chapter 4.

5.3. Assessing Identified Management Styles within the Requirements of the Reconstruction and Development Programme

5.3.1. The Manager as a Change Agent

The new policies for social work within the field of social welfare forecasts profound changes in practice orientation which present challenges to the managers currently managing social workers and social services. It will be crucial for these managers to become active change agents particularly within organizations in order to ensure that new policies are implemented. Hasenfeld (1983:227) recognises that changes in government policies impact upon the nature of social work provision, particularly in stimulating organizational innovation and change. He (Hasenfeld 1983:227) lists these changes as follows:

- (i) New policies may identify certain target populations for the organization to serve which were previously not within its domain.
- (ii) New policies may also redefine the nature of services and service delivery systems which organizations need to adhere to.
- (iii) Policies may also specify certain organizational characteristics that must be met such as accountability requirements and client participation.

Since the RDP in fact prescribes these and additional changes within the field of social welfare, it will be inevitable that organizational change will need to occur in order to conform to and realise these new expectations. According to Neugeboren (1991:189)

the changes which would need to be effected within organizations may be delineated into three categories, namely:

- (i) *Goal change: the shift in the priorities of goals and the addition of new goals.*

The shift in emphasis towards development work as stipulated in the RDP will require the reprioritizing of organizational objectives and the addition of new goals such as affirmative action strategies.

- (ii) *Procedural change: changes in the strategies for achieving goals.*

The RDP requires different modes of operation, for example, consumer participation is now paramount in the planning, implementation and evaluation of developmental initiatives.

- (iii) *Internal change: essentially means structural change which entails a reallocation of resources and shifts in power relationships (Hasenfeld 1980:511).*

In order to realise participation by consumer groups, improvements within inter-sectoral co-ordination, and shifting the intervention focus to development will most likely entail structural change for many organizations which have previously not operated in this manner.

It is inevitable that the social work manager will therefore need to facilitate these changes in a constructive and effective manner. Moreover, these changes may not be realised at all should the manager(s) of the organization not support innovations in

order to participate within the RDP. Hasenfeld (1980:232) acknowledges that no matter how supportive the environment is for change, the motivation of the organization's managers is crucial in supporting these changes. The style of the manager therefore becomes a critical factor. It will not only indicate whether the manager will resist change, but it may also provide insight into the degree to which the manager will be effective in facilitating change. From the results of this study, the manager will most likely use a statistical 5/5 or opportunist style, or a 1/1 impoverished approach.

Opportunist Style: Should the opportunist style be used, the change process will be affected and characterised by the self-interest of the manager as described in the previous chapter. One possibility is that the opportunist manager may resist change as it may threaten his/her position of power, status and/or self-interest. This possibility is also recognised by Neugeboren (1991:186). For example, participation by consumers may not be supported by the opportunist manager since s/he may no longer be able to manipulate decision-making for self-promotion. However, should there be sufficient pressure to change, particularly from superiors such as executive board members, the opportunist will accede but only to avoid conflict and to satisfy superiors - hence remaining in a favourable position. This does not mean that the opportunist manager adheres to the convictions of change, since a characteristic of this style is that personal beliefs are usually unrelated to his/her rhetoric. This may have profound consequences in terms of change initiatives. Firstly, change may occur at a slower pace owing to the lack of personal conviction by the manager, or secondly, changes which favour the manager's position may occur first, thus resulting in skewed

organizational renewal or innovation. Nevertheless, the opportunist manager will attempt to use the changes instituted as a means of improving his/her image and to caste him/her in the limelight.

Since the opportunist management style was predominantly identified within both management and social worker samples in this study, it may therefore be concluded that many managers will either attempt to resist change, or initiate change in order to gain personal advancement. In all likelihood, there will be no personal conviction on the part of the manager that the changes are necessary for development to occur effectively, or even for development to transpire at all for that matter.

The 1/1 Style: The 1/1 management style presents as being even more problematic in implementing changes since it is anticipated that this manager is apathetic, noncommittal and tends to delay and defer in order to accomplish the minimum required. It is questionable whether the 1/1 manager will initiate changes of his/her own accord. Blake and Mouton (1964:96) support this assessment when they state: "...to stimulate change through the involvement of others is, in a real sense, anti-1/1." However, with sufficient pressure the manager may comply but this may possibly be instituted at a slow pace since s/he may characteristically attempt to do the minimum required to achieve the objectives of change.

Therefore, in both instances of the opportunist and 1/1 management styles, the manager will tend to resist changes and may need considerable pressure to ensure compliance. However, should the manager be coerced to assume the role of change

agent, this will be embarked upon either for personal gain or to ensure that s/he maintains his/her job. It is further anticipated that the rate of change will be relatively slow.

The opportunist and 1/1 management styles are therefore not suitable for the requirements of change within social work organizations and service orientation. Managers are needed who are motivated to respond with conviction and as a matter of urgency since large scale social development initiatives are long overdue not only in the social work profession but also within the country.

5.3.2. Participative Decision-Making

The RDP stipulates social welfare as an empowerment process which is consumer-driven, that is, community participation is an imperative to ensure that people may use resources as a means of increasing control over their lives. Consumer participation is therefore required within the prioritizing, planning, implementation, and evaluation of social development programmes. Thus, one of the primary criteria for the acceptance of a development programme for State subsidization is that it features participation by consumers (Tony Ruiters, Western Cape RDP Co-ordinator in his address to the NGO post-summit meeting 28 July 1994). The importance of participation within development has been highlighted by De Graaf (1986: 12-15) as follows:

- (i) People will only commit their resources such as labour and time if they perceive their ownership of activities, that is, they are able to exercise a degree of control over them.
- (ii) Development programmes which are planned without participation will be based on fragmented information, assumptions and guesses.
- (iii) Participation counters paternalism and assists in the redistribution of benefits horizontally and socially.
- (iv) Participation gives expression to social, political and humanitarian values which will provide credibility to development efforts and reduce conflict within contexts of limited resources.
- (v) Participation forces programmes to be flexible and capable of being designed to meet the specific needs of people.
- (vi) Participation enables the development of social and organizational skills.
- (vii) The better the programme reflects the choices and involvement of people, the better are the chances of it being self-sustaining.
- (viii) Policy makers are better able to assess the relevance of programmes they wish to implement with the participation of communities.

The social work manager will be required to ensure that each development programme initiated by the organization - if it is to be successful - is planned with the full participation of community members. This would entail a dramatically different approach to managing in that management practices need to move from planning for to planning with (Smit 1994:4). The aim of social work management would therefore be to work in partnership with community and other interest groups in determining organizational programmes. A consequence of this type of participatory management is that it reduces the separation between managerial action and client needs. The aim, however, is not to merely venerate the consumer as proposed by Gowdy, Rapp and Poertner (1993:10), but to actively listen to and involve people in the identification of their needs and the type of development programmes which they desire.

Another dimension to participatory decision-making is that of including workers within the process. The merits of worker participation has already been argued within this paper, but is emphasised within the framework of the RDP, specifically paragraph 4.8.9 which states that: "Legislation must facilitate worker participation and decision-making in the world of work." The social work manager will therefore need to be skilled in creating and promoting the participation of community groups as well as workers within decision-making processes. Once again, the manager's readiness to engage within this process may be assessed in terms of management style.

Opportunist Style: Autocratic, as opposed to participative, management practices characterise the opportunist profile. In this sense the opportunist manager is not receptive to participative management. However, in assuming that the opportunist is required by superiors to employ participatory practices or recognises that consumers and workers need to be included in decision-making, s/he may nevertheless attempt to manipulate the process for self-advancement and not for the benefit of empowering or addressing the needs of people. This may particularly occur should community members perceive managers as experts and hence uncritically agree to proposals forwarded by the manager. This may also occur should consumers not be confident in advocating for their needs. It may therefore be relatively easy for opportunist managers to deliberately dominate the decision-making processes for their own ends of maintaining power and status. The profile of the opportunist manager indicates that s/he is more likely to direct efforts at achieving personal advancement than at giving primary consideration to other factors such as consumer development. This profile is therefore not only inappropriate in implementing the RDP within social work, but it is

also potentially dangerous since the opportunist manager is superficially agreeable, yet bears a personal agenda which is ultimately counterproductive to the processes of development and empowerment through meaningful community and worker participation.

The 1/1 Style: The 1/1 manager will tend not to be receptive to participative decision-making owing to his/her bureaucratic adherence to organizational rules. In this sense the 1/1 manager exercises extensive managerial control which also characterises him/her as being autocratic. However, should these rules change, the 1/1 manager will tend not to dominate when joint decision-making is taking place, and may opt out of the process altogether. The deficiency of commitment by the 1/1 manager by his/her lack of meaningful participation may increase the frustration of consumers and workers. In fact the inertia of the 1/1 manager may demotivate consumers and workers alike since participation requires joint decision-making and commitment to those decisions in terms of implementation and evaluation which the 1/1 manager may show minimal concern for and interest in.

5.3.3. Transparency

The process of prioritization, planning and implementation within social development is a deliberately transparent process in terms of the RDP. The translation of this principle into action is currently being implemented through the establishment of grassroots structures where community groups and organizations will be represented.

These local RDP Forums will serve as the major mechanism where community participation and transparency will be achieved. It is through these structures that community needs will be collectively prioritized and forwarded to local government for subsidization. This transparent process of prioritizing and allocating resources will essentially force organizations to adhere to the criteria for social development as outlined in the RDP, such as community participation, and attempts at "bypassing" some of these criteria may not produce positive outcomes in terms of programme acceptance. The transparent feature of public processes which in all possibility will constitute a key feature of social welfare in South Africa, implicitly necessitates transparency by the key participants within the field of practice, notably social work managers. Once again, the readiness by the manager to adopt a transparent approach, may be indicated by his/her managerial style.

Opportunist Style: The opportunist management profile indicates that this manager will tend to resist transparency since s/he is accustomed to manipulating others for self-interest. This style in itself promotes non-transparency as the priority of the manager is the attainment of personal goals for advancement whilst giving the impression that s/he is pursuing organizational objectives. Therefore, the opportunist manager may verbally advocate that transparent practices are essential, yet in practice may not adhere to this principle. This scenario is therefore problematic in that the opportunist manager may adversely affect social development in seeking to promote his/her own image at the expense of development processes and outcomes. The opportunist manager, in working according to a hidden agenda of self promotion, will tend to contradict transparency (Van Niekerk 1994:176).

The 1/1 Style: The stance of the 1/1 manager is one which will not champion transparency, nor for that matter will there be an attempt to thwart it. In keeping with being apathetic, indifferent and noncommittal, the 1/1 manager will make no concerted effort at promoting transparency or ensuring that organizational practices are transparent. Since the 1/1 manager is him-/herself not interested in transparency owing to being uninvolved and adhering to the motto of "see no evil, hear no evil" (Blake and Mouton 1985:50), s/he will tend not to promote it unless expected to do so by superiors to prevent being conspicuous or to avoid conflict. For the same reasons, the 1/1 manager will therefore tend to accept transparent practices and approaches once these are implemented by others or if required to do so by superiors.

5.3.4. Action learning

In order for social work managers to effectively transform their current practices in terms of the requirements of the RDP to achieve increased co-ordination, networking, community participation, transparency, affirmative action and so on, action learning will be crucial. Jones (1990:29-30) states that action learning is learning from experience and personal insight, and is also a crucial means by which managers may cope with change. Mintzberg (1973:175) has termed this process self-study. In the social work literature, Gowdy, Rapp and Poertner (1993:17) recognise the importance of learning in client-centred managerial practice when they write: "Managers whose programs show effective results are those who 'learn for a living' rather than 'work for a living.'" Steiner (1977:79) lends further support to the argument when he states:

"Organizational effectiveness is best attained when it stems from a willingness to admit that there is always room for improvement." Learning and specifically action learning is therefore particularly vital for social work managers in South Africa who need to change their orientations and perspectives in a fundamental manner. For example, a pivotal issue is that the manager will need to learn new ways of "getting close to the customer" as suggested by Peters and Waterman (1982) so that organizations are more people-driven and need oriented. Rapp and Poertner (1988:24) have argued that the client is a peripheral concern or virtually ignored in human services management and in South Africa this has been recognised within social work by Smit (1994). Therefore, managers would need to be more receptive to exploring alternative ways of operating, and in using learning as a means of achieving this.

Learning firstly enables the manager to value feedback from consumers, community groups, staff, pressure groups and other organizations such as NGOs so that programme effectiveness may be increased through design, implementation, networking, and co-ordination. Secondly, learning may enable the manager to respond more effectively to changing conditions and may motivate the relinquishment of dysfunctional working practices in favour of new approaches. Hasenfeld (1989:1) has called this transformational leadership, but Dechant (1990:40) recognises that learning is a central feature which facilitates transformation. She argues that when managers are aware that their past practices are no longer appropriate to new circumstances, they need to be able to change their perspectives, assumptions and themselves through learning in a bid to advance their level of knowledge so that they are more capable of meeting new challenges and evolving conditions (Dechant 1990:40).

Learning is therefore central to change, and the fundamental changes within the South African context of social work practice which delineates a seemingly reversal of policies, requires the social work manager to be responsive, adaptive and receptive - in other words, learning oriented. The degree to which the manager is prepared to engage within these learning activities and processes may once again be gauged from the managerial styles used.

Opportunist Style: The opportunist manager whose motivation is primarily myopical self-aggrandizement, will in all possibility use learning as a mechanism by which to improve his/her means of fulfilling this aim. Since past practices at tactical self-promotion may no longer be as effective, more creative methods may therefore be sought. It is anticipated therefore that the opportunist manager may adapt by shedding previously dysfunctional patterns of operation in order to improve his/her position of power. S/he may also change to merely satisfy superiors since a characteristic of this profile is that of being ingratiating towards and satisfying those higher in the organizational hierarchy (Blake and Mouton 1985:154). In changing practices, the opportunist manager is not necessarily committed to the principles underpinning these change efforts, as is characteristic of this profile. This is once again problematic since the manager's aim in changing is for exclusive self-enhancement, which is antithetical to the values espoused by community development and empowerment.

The 1/1 Style: In the case of the 1/1 profile where the manager's disinterest, indifference and apathy is pronounced, it may be anticipated that this manager will in all likelihood display a lack of or very limited concern for learning. Since the aim of the

1/1 manager is merely to accomplish the minimum possible in order to "get by", it is expected that s/he may wait for others to take action or let things run their course (Blake and Mouton 1985:62). This manager's passivity may also adversely affect those who wish to advance their practices and who feel constrained by the withdrawn and resigned stance of the manager. This profile is possibly the most counterproductive in realising the objectives of the RDP and may commonly be construed as resistance by the manager, instead of an attempt at self-preservation which it essentially is.

5.3.5. Management as Empowerment

The cornerstones of the RDP are capacity building and user empowerment. Social work managers therefore need to employ practices which are congruent with and reinforce these values. According to Rees (1991:66) the empowerment process addresses two related objectives: "the achievement of a more equitable distribution of resources and non-exploitative relationships between people and the enabling of people to achieve a creative sense of power through enhanced self-respect, confidence, knowledge and skills." However, empowerment may also be viewed as the enabling process of providing people with access to and control over the resources and opportunities which they may utilize in order to shape their lives according to their needs (De Graaf 1986:15, Hegar and Hunzeker 1988:499). Empowerment is a process which is therefore not necessarily restricted to a particular programme or course of action, and should ideally pervade development practices at all levels within social welfare in particular. This is especially crucial since managerial practices engendered

by apartheid tended to be authoritarian and bureaucratic (Van Niekerk 1994:176) - congruent with values of disempowerment, repression and dehumanization. Social work managers need to be role models reflecting new trends of operation which reveal a broader vision and a commitment to capacity building as opposed to presenting restrictions by excessive control and rigidity.

Opportunist Style: The opportunist manager has the potential to integrate this approach within his/her managerial orientation since self-empowerment is a primary motivating factor for this manager. However, it is for this very reason that the manager's "empowerment" practices may be suspect. The opportunist manager will tend to utilise empowering management practices to promote his/her own standing, and not exclusively for the sake of ensuring that both consumers and workers are more capable in determining their community or work lives. Moreover, the autocratic management practices which characterise this profile indicate that this style would tend to be disempowering through stringent managerial control.

The 1/1 Style: The 1/1 resigned and apathetic manager, on the other hand, will doubtless desist an empowering managerial approach since s/he is relatively disempowered him-/herself. The 1/1 manager will firstly need to empower him-/herself before s/he is able to be an empowering agent or catalyst to others. The limitation of the 1/1 management style in this respect thus highlights the inappropriateness and ineffectiveness of this style within social work in contemporary South Africa.

5.3.6. Entrepreneurial Management

According to Hegar and Hunzeker (1988:500), developing an entrepreneurial spirit may either imply taking risks, being creative and using initiative; or being independent, responsible, encouraging self-expression, making commitments and believing in the rightness of these actions. Tropman (1989:239) submits that entrepreneurial leadership is being advanced in developing new ideas, practices and services. It would seem that the characteristics of entrepreneurial leadership from both authors are vital to the social work manager within the South African context where a social development focus is espoused. The "new territory" for social work in South Africa in terms of the RDP is such that a renewed and novel approach is needed which combines risk-taking, initiative, commitment as well as new practices and services in order to ensure meaningful realisation of goals and programme outcomes. The need for entrepreneurial managers in South Africa whose focus is need-driven has also been argued by Smit (1994:15).

Opportunist Style: Superficially it may seem that a situational approach to managing which the opportunist profile essentially presents, may be appropriate for entrepreneurial management since it enables varied responses in accordance with the demands of the environment. However, upon closer scrutiny this may not necessarily be accurate. Not only are the limitations of situational management as discussed previously in this paper problematic from the point of view of being chaotic, vulnerable to the perpetuation of racist, sexist and other forms of discrimination, but when it takes the specific form of an opportunist style, it introduces additional difficulties.

The primary concern is that the opportunist manager, whilst being creative at self-promotion, is not necessarily as creative in problem-solving which is essentially the focus within developmental efforts. Secondly, Blake and Mouton (1985:154) describe the opportunist manager as "being all things to all people" which coincides with Smit's (1990:301) depiction of the social work manager. The limitation here is that the manager will ultimately have to sacrifice credibility since it is indisputably not an easy task to maintain this function. Therefore, whilst in the short term the opportunist manager may be successful, this may be self-defeating on the longer term (Blake and Mouton 1985:154). The opportunist management style thus does not appear to sustain long term development efforts owing to its inconsistency and the uncertainty regarding the personal convictions and commitments of the manager. This style therefore does not present as being conducive to realising entrepreneurial management within social work.

The 1/1 Style: The nature of the 1/1 managerial profile indicates that the manager with this style will prefer to be inconspicuous and a bystander instead of displaying initiative, innovation and creativity. The 1/1 manager's lack of commitment towards his/her work is also another indication that this manager will not be motivated to be an entrepreneur and would tend to remain indifferent and a noncontributor. Moreover, the manager's indifferent stance will tend to dampen the creative and innovative efforts of others, particularly of those workers who report to him/her (Blake and Mouton 1964:96). This style would therefore not promote change, innovation and creativity which are imperatives for effective developmental efforts as circumscribed in the RDP.

From the above analysis, the opportunist and 1/1 styles emerge as being inappropriate, ineffective and counterproductive within the current developmental context of practice. These styles, though identified as being prevalent within social work, need to be transformed as a matter of urgency so that a more effective response is assured from the social work sector. The implementation of the RDP is dependent upon the commitment and skills of professionals such as social work managers who are in key positions to institute changes and initiate development efforts. However, in analysing the currently dominant managerial styles within the organizations surveyed, it is apparent that these processes of change and development may be thwarted or unnecessarily delayed since style assessments indicate autocratic practices and a general lack of commitment by managers towards change initiatives, particularly in favour of self-interest.

It is nevertheless imperative that dysfunctional styles need to be fundamentally relinquished so that new, more effective approaches may be assumed. According to the Managerial Grid, the 9/9 approach is considered the most effective and this style will therefore be assessed as a more pragmatic and effective alternative to the styles currently being used by many managers.

5.4. An Assessment of the 9/9 Style in terms of RDP Requirements

The 9/9 approach to managing compares more favourably than the opportunist or 1/1 styles. The 9/9 style encompasses the following elements which make it more effective within the contemporary South African context of development and change:

- (i) It is a team-management approach, that is, the manager is a team leader and facilitator.
- (ii) Participatory management is a key feature of this style.
- (iii) Organizational goals are integrated with individual objectives so that the former are pursued vigorously and with conviction as they result in increased self-fulfilment.
- (iv) Managerial initiative and creativity is high.
- (v) Critique is viewed as opportunities for learning.
- (vi) Individual and institutional change follows from innovation, creativity and learning.

These features of the 9/9 style appear congruent with the new policies guiding social work in South Africa. Team or 9/9 management facilitates joint problem solving and the sharing of information (Hall 1993:356), thus lending itself to increased transparency. Managers employing a team management style may not find the inclusion of consumer groups within decision making problematic since it will be a matter of extending participation. It is unlikely that the team manager as a facilitator will attempt to dominate decision-making, even though there is always a possibility that this may occur in certain instances. However, the 9/9 management style adheres to the principle of meaningful participation, that is, understanding and consensus are integral to the process. Moreover, participation is limited to those persons whom the manager perceives as being able to contribute to problem-solving and/or those person(s) who are affected by the outcome of the decision. Whilst the merits and disadvantages of the latter have already been discussed in Chapter 4, it is expected

that in the case of prioritizing needs and planning development programmes, broad consensus with client groups and other stakeholders will be sought.

Furthermore, the personal convictions of the manager are congruent to his/her managerial action since organizational and individual goals are integrated and not viewed as being in conflict. The 9/9 manager will therefore not harbour a hidden agenda of self-interest as with the opportunist management style. Change efforts by the 9/9 manager will consequently tend to be more effective, decisive, meaningful and at an increased and sustained rate. Change processes are further facilitated owing to learning being central to this style of management. According to Blake and Mouton (1985:92), the 9/9 manager employs double-loop learning, that is, the manager does not learn by trial-and-error, but learning takes place accompanied by a change in the organizational norms or "theory-in-use" (Argyris and Schon 1984:365). The change within the organization's embedded norms as a direct result of learning indicates that the 9/9 manager is also a change agent. Double-loop learning also encompasses morphogenetic change (Robb 1988:4). The latter may be particularly crucial since prevailing structures may be the biggest obstacles to change and development (De Graaf 1986:20). However, the 9/9 style is not explicitly morphogenetic as has already been mentioned in Chapter 2. Nevertheless, it encompasses a change-orientation implicitly including a morphogenetic component which is essential for organizational transformation and development. Furthermore, the change and development potential of this profile is strengthened by its characteristically high level of creativity which indicates a willingness to explore alternative ways of operating (Blake and Mouton 1964:166).

The 9/9 manager's readiness for innovation does not imply that s/he will implement change for the sake thereof. Instead, the manager will attempt to test various alternatives after broad consultation in order to find the best possible solution (Blake and Mouton 1964:167). Moreover, in using participation as a means through which change is achieved, the 9/9 manager may effectively limit resistance. This approach therefore integrates participation, learning, innovation and change - which makes it an appropriate and sound foundation upon which managers may base their practice within the present context of social work in South Africa.

However, certain features within this model need additional emphasis owing to the restructuring of the social welfare sector. The first aspect in this regard is that structural change has to be explicit and prioritized within this approach. Since the principal intention of the 9/9 style is the accomplishment of work through people, structural change may occur as a function of the willingness of people to change. Structural change may therefore not be the primary consideration for the manager. However, the social work manager may need to prioritize the role of change agent since changes may be dictated by policies external to the organization, and may consequently require fundamental alterations within organizational structures. The social work manager therefore needs to anticipate these changes by exploring and experimenting with alternatives in order to effect restructuring in a proactive manner.

Secondly, the social work manager needs to maximize innovation as a means of forecasting future changes which would enable the profession to expand and sustain its relevance and effectiveness. Ankrah (1987:22) and Mupedziswa (1992:29) support

a futuristic and macrodeterministic orientation for social work managers as a means of anticipating human needs and formulating appropriate responses so that the profession of social work may proactively introduce more creative and aggressive service alternatives than is currently the case. Whereas the RDP is currently relevant for the redressing of inequality and skewed development, the document may not be as relevant in the future. A futuristic orientation will enable social work managers to interpret and implement the RDP not only as a plan of transition for redressing imbalances, but as a means by which development initiatives for the future beyond the time frame of the RDP may be explored.

5.5. Synopsis

The examination of identified managerial styles within the present social work context in South Africa has indicated that the opportunist/situational management style as well as the 1/1 impoverished style will not be effective nor appropriate since these approaches appear to counter the values of development and empowerment as espoused within the RDP to a great degree. The 9/9 style on the other hand shows relevance since it incorporates meaningful participation, planned change, learning and teamwork as the predominant features which are favoured in development approaches.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Conclusions

6.1.1. The Nature of Management Styles within Social Work

The research results of both the management and social worker samples show the opportunist or the Statistical 5/5 management style as being predominant within social work organizations in the greater Cape Town area. The 1/1 or impoverished management style features significantly only within the social worker sample, though to less an extent than the opportunist style. However, the central features of these styles indicate their limitations within the South African context of practice. These features are as follows:

(a) *The motivation of the manager is one of self-interest*

Hasenfeld's (1980:510) political economic perspective of human service institutions proposes the organization "as an arena in which interest groups [such as managers] with differential access to resources compete with each other to shape the activities of the organization so that it optimizes their interests" (own emphasis). Moreover,

Gummer (1978:354) argues for a power-politics approach to social welfare organizations which "proceeds from the central assumption that organizational members seek to promote their own self-interests." These arguments suggest that social work management, as an aspect of organizational functioning, may also be construed as aiming to fulfil self-interests. The research results of this study confirm these contentions with the identification of the opportunist style as being the most prevalent within the organizations surveyed. An analysis of the opportunist style indicates that the manager is primarily motivated by his/her self-interest since a characteristic of this manager shows a principal concern for enhancing his/her own position of power and status, indicating that s/he will tend to engage in activities which will secure or promote this position. The myopic self-interest of the manager suggests that his/her commitment to change, social development, participatory and transparent practices as espoused within the RDP will be questionable and primarily guided by the objective of personal advancement. Therefore, the opportunist manager may in all probability use social development initiatives for self-promotion which may retard the process of reconstruction through distorted priorities, power games, manipulation and tacit resistance as discussed in Chapter 5.

Another consequence of managers being motivated by self-interest is that their rhetoric is usually unrelated to their personal convictions (Blake and Mouton 1985:151). This is another characteristic of the opportunist manager which may result in managerial ineffectiveness in social work owing to a lack of commitment to issues such as social development and change which may not favour their self-interest. This will inevitably adversely affect service outcomes.

The 1/1 manager, like the opportunist profile, also indicates a concern with self-interest, but in the sense that s/he seeks to survive by doing the minimum necessary. The 1/1 manager's prime motivation is thus self-preservation, and commitment to issues such as change would therefore be minimal or entirely lacking. Yet, commitment to change and development is crucial within contemporary social work managerial practice.

The importance of how managerial commitment and action affect the organization's operations and change efforts are recognised by Martin (1987:223) when she writes: "Effective daily operations are greatly affected by the director's knowledge, skills, and behaviours relative to constituents inside and outside of the SWO [social welfare organization] and successful organization change projects require a director's full-fledged involvement and support." This supports Dinsmore's (1975:20) contention that what the organization is "results directly from what each manager does." Managerial action and style may therefore be considered to impact directly upon managerial effectiveness.

It may thus be concluded that the predominant managerial styles of opportunism and 1/1 impoverished management identified within the social work organizations surveyed are generally ineffective, partly since they indicate self-interest as the primary motivating factor by managers.

contemporary values. Changes may consequently be superficial, or the process may be retarded through the prioritization of personal goals.

In contrast, the 1/1 manager is characterised as being indifferent, apathetic, uncreative and uncommittal - a stance which does not appear conducive to the promotion of change initiatives. The opportunist and 1/1 styles therefore present as being ineffective within the South African context where managers are key players in the implementation structural changes.

(d) *Situational management approaches are prominent*

As a situational management approach, the opportunist style presupposes inconsistent management practices, which vary according to the manager's perceptions of the environment and persons. This could lead to inaccurate assessments and provide a means by which the manager's biases may indirectly perpetuate or encourage problems such as racism, sexism, ethnocentrism and other forms of discrimination. In this respect the opportunist style presents as being undesirable within the South African context which is promoting equality and a human rights culture. The identification of the "no dominant style" and dominant style confusion profiles both within the management and social worker samples is further evident of the prevalence of situational management since these approaches closely resemble the statistical 5/5 profile in that more than one Grid style is utilised.

From the features outlined above, it is therefore concluded that the statistical 5/5 or opportunist and the 1/1 impoverished management styles are largely ineffective and inappropriate within the present South African context. These approaches are considered to be counterproductive to development and change since these managers show a lack of commitment to initiatives other than that which promotes their self-interest. These managers also adhere to authoritarian management practices which emphasise control, and tend to be morphostatic in orientation. Furthermore, the opportunist style is a situational management approach which may indirectly promote practices such as racism and sexism, thus being in conflict with the egalitarian and human rights culture currently being manifested in South Africa. It is therefore apparent that changes in managerial style are crucial within South African social work management.

6.1.2. Changes in Management Style are Essential for Development

The social work manager in South Africa is essentially at a crossroads: to persist with current styles of management and present impediments to processes of transformation and reconstruction, or to change to a more effective and appropriate style of management which would enable an active and relevant engagement within the RDP.

However, it is anticipated that present styles will not change automatically since an analysis of the predominant managerial styles (as discussed earlier) indicates a high resistance to change. In addition, these styles appear to be entrenched through

transmission and intraorganizational policies and practices which are firmly embedded within organizational culture. Strauss and Sayles (1967:335) state that supervisory styles are "handed down" from level to level within organizations, so that a manager's style may reflect the supervisory style of his/her superior within the organizational hierarchy. This provides some indication of the resilience of managerial style since it is not only a function of internal psychological factors and social conditioning, but also mutually reinforced by the organizational environment. Furthermore, a change in organizational structures or modes of operating may not necessarily imply that managerial styles may automatically change. Patel (1988:19) has argued that: "Attitudes do not die when structures change, it is a long process and a difficult one fraught with tensions between realism and idealism." It is therefore apparent that changes in managerial style need to be deliberate and explicit, and that the notion of amorphic, non-directional and spontaneous transformation would be questionable in terms of outcome.

It is self-evident that South Africa needs social work managers who are effective and motivated to work towards the goals of the RDP. In order for this to occur, managerial styles and roles will have to change dramatically. Ankrah (1987:19) endorses this view when she calls for the radicalizing of specifically the leadership within social work in Africa as a prerequisite and stimulus for change. In terms of management style, which is a core component of managerial orientation, the change towards a 9/9 or team management approach is proposed as a more effective alternative within the present context of democracy and nation-building.

6.1.3. The 9/9 or Team Management Style is Proposed as more Effective within the Present South African Context

Assuming that managers are willing to change their orientations, the 9/9 style of management is proposed as the more effective alternative for the present South African context. Within this context, an effective style will need to meet the requirements of the RDP as mentioned in Chapter 5 which are: managers as change agents, participatory decision-making, transparency, action learning, and empowering and entrepreneurial management. These elements facilitate the resolution of the subproblems as outlined in Chapter 1 which highlight the need for the management of change and diversity and the utilization of participatory management within social work in a democratic South Africa.

The 9/9 style embodies many of the elements and principles deemed desirable in terms of democracy, development and change. This is particularly evident in the emphasis which the 9/9 manager places on learning and change in the quest to improve both managerial and organizational functioning. The 9/9 approach therefore facilitates innovation and creativity. Moreover, the characteristic use of double-loop learning by the 9/9 manager implies a morphogenetic change orientation which is especially crucial in enabling organizational transformation. The approach is also team-centred, that is, work is achieved through the meaningful participation and commitment of all participants. Equity and transparency is thus facilitated in the use of this style with its emphasis on joint problem-solving and managerial consistency. Problems such as racism and sexism may therefore be countered as the manager consistently seeks to accomplish tasks successfully through worker participation.

The 9/9 approach also integrates individual and organizational goals which Weiner (1987:147) argues is "the key for mutual enhancement of organizational performance measured in terms of effectiveness (client outcome) and staff morale (work satisfaction)." This contrasts with contingency management approaches such as the Situational Leadership and the opportunist style models which require the manager to respond according to his/her perception of a situation or person(s). The implicitly erratic nature of the contingency approaches holds limitations for their effectiveness within a development-focused context with the added dangers of perpetuating managerial self-interest and preservation. Therefore, for social work managers to change their management style orientations to a 9/9 profile would require a dramatic shift in emphasis from individual to collective needs and priorities. The latter essentially presents a client-centred approach to managing as proposed by Rapp and Poertner (1988) and Gowdy, Rapp and Poertner (1993) which may not only enhance service effectiveness, but is considered necessary for social development where the needs of consumers are of primary consideration.

6.1.4. Management Style affects Managerial Effectiveness

An analysis of the opportunist and 1/1 styles of management demonstrates that these approaches are not conducive to a democratic and developmental context of practice within contemporary South Africa. Approaches which promote and foster meaningful participation, the teamwork ethic and transparency would be more effective and appropriate within the present context since the attitudes, motivation and behaviour of managers directly and indirectly affect the processes of organizational change and

hence service delivery. It is apparent therefore that managerial behaviour as it manifests in terms of style, is an indicator of managerial effectiveness in terms of service outcome.

Patti (1987) has recognised the relationship between managerial action and service outcome. He notes, however, that the relationship between managerial behaviour and service outcomes is seldom acknowledged in the social work management literature (Patti 1987:7). Nevertheless, an analysis of the results of this study support Patti's (1987:10) advocacy for a service effectiveness driven approach to social work management. That is, the nature of managerial style is crucial in assessing managerial effectiveness which is evaluated in terms of service outcomes as considered within the context of practice. For example, the 1/1 management style may have been effective for managers within the apartheid era who needed to exercise self-preservation by remaining neutral, and merely implementing State-prioritized social services as required. In contrast, the present context demands the prioritization of services by those people who need them, and necessitates that the manager uses initiative and creativity to improve service provision which were previously not demanded and emphasised. The 1/1 style within the present context is therefore ineffective since it would ultimately retard the processes of participation and development owing to the manager's lack of commitment and inventiveness, and motivation of self-interest. Changes in management style towards a more effective approach would therefore facilitate improved managerial performance in terms of service outcomes.

However, the means by which managers may effectively be induced or motivated to change their styles will be especially crucial since the nature of prevailing managerial styles as discussed above indicate possible resistance, particularly since fundamental changes in values and commitment are required. The recommendations proposed will therefore include considerations around this vital issue.

6.2. Recommendations

The results and their analysis within this paper clearly indicate that the majority of social work managers within private social work organizations in the greater Cape Town area will need to change their styles of operating in order to enhance their effectiveness within a democratic and development-focused context of practice. This shift in orientation is necessary to ensure that the impact of managerial performance on service outcomes is positive and not counterproductive. The recommendations which are offered therefore focus on proactive, long term strategies and short term initiatives geared towards facilitating change in current practice approaches. The change in style which is recommended is towards a 9/9 profile of management. However, the 9/9 style is not offered as a panacea for the problems confronting social work managers. On the contrary, it is viewed as one critical aspect of management which may enhance managerial effectiveness in the present South African context. Other factors which could also meaningfully contribute towards increased effectiveness include management development and training, affirmative action and a client-centred approach to evaluating managerial performance.

6.2.1. Changing Current Management Styles to a 9/9 or Team Management Profile

In order to work effectively towards the realisation of the RDP, social work managers will need to change their style orientation to one which will promote the values and principles of the RDP. This paper has argued that the 9/9 or team management style is the most congruent in this regard. The process of "conversion" to a team management style will entail a radical shift to an approach encompassing a morphogenetic approach to managing which is currently widely advocated as appropriate for social work managers in Africa (Ankrah 1987, Mupedziswa 1992, Midgley 1985, Smit 1994). Whilst changes in managerial orientation are crucial, the means by which this will be achieved are not extensively discussed in the literature. The challenge will inevitably be presented to those within social work and the State structures implementing the RDP, to seek pragmatic ways in which this process may be facilitated in a constructive and effective manner. A number of alternatives exist, but would need to be subjected to scrutiny and research in assessing their viability. These are:

- (i) State welfare structures which exert considerable influence within the formal welfare sector owing to subsidization may have to show political will by concretely enforcing the principles of development espoused within the RDP, and hence indirectly influencing managers to change in accordance with these principles. Lewis and Lewis (1983:183) refer to this as a power-coercive strategy which attempts to effect change through political and economic sanctions.

- (ii) Managers may be persuaded by community groups, the State, and organizational participants to bring about a shift in practice orientation. Neugeboren (1991:184) states that persuasion to change may be successful with persons whose self-interest is of primary consideration. Persuasion may therefore be an effective method for those social work managers who operate according to an opportunist style where self-interest is salient.
- (iii) Another means of instituting change suggested by Neugeboren (1991:184) is the use of "raw power." This strategy may be effective especially for 1/1 managers whose indifference and apathy possibly need to be countered with coercion. Here once again community groups, the State and organizational participants higher in the hierarchy may be strategically placed to use this method. However, coercion may be implausible in certain instances since forcing a 9/9 style may result in a facade, which Blake and Mouton (1985:155) recognise as a false front obscuring the true intentions and actual style of the manager.
- (iv) It is impractical to expect managers to change towards a 9/9 orientation without specific training, motivation and support. Management development and training are crucial factors in facilitating these changes in a constructive manner. These are perhaps the most effective alternatives since they are explicit, largely goal-directed and primarily aim to enhance the competency and effectiveness of the manager through learning and change.

6.2.2. Management Development and Training

It has been widely acknowledged that managers are predominantly recruited from the ranks of line social workers (Smit 1994:7, Cooper 1980:77). Very often the move to a managerial position has not been accompanied with the appropriate training which prepares the individual for the new challenges and skills needed. Stein (1970:11) notes that: "Being a qualified social worker, however, does not of itself insure administrative competence; special training and experience are increasingly required to meet the demands of executive responsibilities." The critical shortage of management development and training programmes specifically for social work in South Africa therefore needs to be addressed should improved performances and role changes be expected from managers.

Appropriate management development programmes should provide opportunities for learning and enable managers to acquire technical, conceptual and especially interpersonal skills required to facilitate organizational change for the improvement of service effectiveness. The definition of management development by Ashton et al (1975:5) as "a conscious and systematic decision-action process to control the development of managerial resources in the organization for the achievement of organizational goals and strategies" indicates that the process is deliberate, goal-directed and oriented in terms of service outcomes. Viedge and Taffinder (1986:28) state that management development is a long term process which aims to improve general skills and is tailored to potential organizational demands. Management development is therefore a long term strategy to ensure that managers develop and

maintain a futuristic and change orientation. The process therefore encourages managers to develop an ongoing awareness of environmental changes impacting upon the managerial process as well as the organization's services and performance.

However, within the South African reality where managers may need short-term strategies for improving performance and the acquisition of specific skills for implementing immediate organizational change, management training is also recommended. Viedge and Taffinder (1986:28) conceptualise management training as short-term, involving specific skills and task-oriented towards actual organizational demands. The difference between management development and management training is primarily concerned with the degree of specificity. Management training is more precise with respect to the mastery of tasks, whereas management development emphasises process and outcome. Zimbler (1992:403) provides the following explanation: "While training answers the question of what it is that needs to be acquired by people in organizations, development addresses itself to the question of how people may best behave in accordance with the fulfilment of organizational goals and objectives."

However, both management development and management training programmes may be costly and hence not accessible to many social work organizations. It is therefore recommended that improvisations be made which could encourage learning and development within organizations. Recommendations in this regard are:

(a) *Internal mentorship programmes*

Mentorship may simply be conceived as the long term development of a worker by a manager for the specific purposes of teaching managerial skills and competencies. Storey (1989:12) notes that research has shown the cost-effectiveness and success of mentorship programmes. The latter may therefore be promoted within social work organizations in order to identify and develop managerial potential. However, since this study identifies predominantly ineffective managerial styles, managerial mentors will need to be carefully selected and this process, as well as the selection of potential managers, will need to be transparent to ensure equity.

(b) *Self-development programmes*

Whilst self-development may seem implausible given the ineffectiveness of managerial styles prevalent within organizations, it is nevertheless a process which could enable learning by the manager at his/her own pace. Storey (1989:12) cautions that self-development may be used by those managers who least need it, thus indicating that a measure of organizational involvement is needed to identify those managers who need to improve their functioning within a particular time-frame. However, self-development, if used exclusively may be ineffective particularly should the manager not be motivated to learn. Self-development programmes for social work managers may therefore have to be used in conjunction with other initiatives such as short training courses.

6.2.3. Affirmative Action

According to the RDP (paragraph 2.13.18), "the national, provincial and local social welfare departments must have both specialised and generic social service personnel at management, middle-management and operational levels." In the same paragraph it is further stated that social work managers have to be trained with due regard for affirmative action. Therefore, whilst the role of the social work manager is acknowledged within the RDP, affirmative action is prescribed to ensure that these managers will not be a reflection of past policies of white advancement which Smit (1994:7) confirms. Patel (1992:163) and Van Niekerk (1994:175) have argued that affirmative action within social work will be a political necessity to facilitate social justice through the reversal of structural inequalities. However, affirmative action is not merely the appointment of Black managers. It has to reflect a commitment to a programme of educational advancement through management development which is geared to adequately prepare candidates for their new portfolios. Hugo (1989:5) therefore emphasises training as a crucial component of affirmative action as it will enhance the prospects for equality of opportunity. A holistic approach to affirmative action within social work will thus encompass strategic human resources management planning particularly in terms of recruitment, training and succession. Furthermore, affirmative action may need to be enforced since organizations and managers may not adhere to this strategy of their own accord. Effective means of enforcement will therefore need to be explored within the profession as a matter of urgency.

6.2.4. Changes in Social Work Training

The RDP has called for the revision of current curricula of social welfare and development training institutions (paragraph 2.13.18). The objective is to achieve greater congruency between the development needs of the country and the human resource skills needed for effective social intervention. Patel (1992:130) has noted that development will be hampered by a shortage of skills in particularly social development work. Social work training curricula which currently emphasise individual therapy (McKendrick 1990b:247) will therefore have to be revised to reflect a shift towards the acquisition of skills in and understanding of social development. This is especially crucial for managerial human resources planning for the following reasons:

- (i) The profession needs to proactively plan the development of its human resources so that basic training aids in establishing a sound foundation towards macro-intervention and development. The latter are anticipated as the dominant foci for future social work practice of which managers will be principal actors.
- (ii) Since managers are mainly drawn from the ranks of social workers, it is crucial that the latter are trained and experienced in social development so that the problems owing to changes in orientation are avoided.
- (iii) An analysis of the results of this study has shown that ineffective management styles may adversely affect development. Since managerial effectiveness and style effectiveness may be learnt (Drucker 1966), social work training needs to

adequately prepare social workers as future managers not only in appropriate management technologies, but also aim to develop the interpersonal skills and style orientation for effective leadership.

Changes within the social work curricula especially at undergraduate level is therefore necessary to ensure a sound foundation of practice and managerial preparation. A study by Fram (1982:76-77) confirms this recommendation when he states: "...human services professionals need to know more about management. This includes both human services professionals who want management careers and those who will spend their careers in direct services."

6.2.5. Client-Centred Management is needed in South Africa

Client-centred management practice is not new in the welfare sector in South Africa. The alternative/progressive welfare sector as identified by Patel (1992), Triegaardt (1993:67) and Smit (1992:24) has already made significant progress in this regard. Hall (1993:360) has argued that management structures within the alternative welfare (or NGO) sector are flexible and responsive to the needs of consumers with decision-making and control being more transparent. The focus of these progressive organizations has been on mass poverty and structural inequality using a multi-disciplinary approach which emphasises development, whilst also aspiring to balance curative and preventative orientations (Patel 1992:134). The progressive or alternative welfare sector has therefore been more consumer-centred in their practice in that

client needs have largely determined the nature of services. This contrasts with the formal welfare sector (in which social work organizations are predominant), where services are mainly therapeutic owing to previous State subsidization requirements. Smit (1992:24) has noted that: "This [formal welfare] system largely failed to address the needs of the poor, the disenfranchised and those deprived of basic human rights."

The lack of client-centredness within social work organizations is a managerial problem. Patti (1987:9) especially has argued that service effectiveness should be the principal concern of social work management since this is the "primary business of the social welfare organization." Rapp and Poertner (1988) and Gowdy, Rapp and Poertner (1993) have built upon this argument by suggesting a client-centred model of management practice whereby managerial effectiveness is assessed in terms of client outcomes. Social work managers in South Africa need to change their practice orientations so that organizations may become more client-centred, which will also enable a closer alignment with the values and goals of the RDP. In order to achieve this, management style will be crucial since the orientation of the manager will determine his/her receptivity to change and/or effectiveness within the field of development. The 9/9 style is presented as being highly effective in enabling this development within social work in South Africa.

6.2.6. Service Outcome should be the Primary Assessment Criterion of Managerial Effectiveness

The premise from which this study is conducted is that managerial style affects managerial effectiveness. The results and conclusions drawn show that managerial style profoundly impacts upon managerial effectiveness particularly within the social context of South Africa where the values and principles of democracy and development are espoused within a nationally accepted plan, the RDP. In order to ensure that social work develops and remains relevant, and that managerial actions and orientations are explicitly and implicitly directed at achieving the goals of development in accordance with the RDP, a primary criterion for assessing managerial effectiveness should be service outcome. This will facilitate a convergence between managerial action and consumer needs and services. Gowdy, Rapp and Poertner (1993:8) note that current managerial practice is characterised by a separation between management and consumers with the consequence that the organization's means become its end. Yet, managers are key players in influencing organizational activities and priorities. Ezell, Menefee and Patti (1989:75) support this view when they write: "In recent years, a small and fragmented body of empirical work has been developed which suggests that what managers do or cause to happen in organizations has a significant impact on service quality." Within the present context of South Africa, managers are strategically placed to promote and support development initiatives. Their style and action directly affect service outcomes owing to their position of power, authority and influence within organizations. In order to ensure that managerial action facilitates development as opposed to constraining initiatives, it is thus crucial that service outcome has to be a primary assessment criterion of managerial effectiveness.

6.2.7. Questions for Future Research

Whilst numerous research questions may be proposed following the results and conclusions of this research study, those considered the most crucial by the researcher are:

(a) *Are social work managers sufficiently competent?*

The prevalence of ineffective management styles identified within this study suggests that managerial competence is relatively low. This notion is further reinforced by the apparent lack of effective managerial preparation and management development and training programmes.

(b) *Are managers changing their styles to participatory models in accordance with the expectations and the requirements of the RDP?*

This study has identified predominant management styles which are not participatory, transparent, or team-centred. Whether social work managers will change their practice approaches in accordance with the requirements of the RDP which calls for, inter alia, participation and transparency will need to be determined through future research studies.

(c) *What are the factors which determine managerial style?*

This study was a descriptive survey which aimed to identify managerial styles within social work organizations. The study therefore did not focus on the factors which determine these styles. Future research initiatives which explore the latter will be especially useful in possibly identifying the root causes of

ineffective styles which may then be addressed, as well as the factors which result in effective styles which may then be enhanced for the promotion of more effective management.

- (d) *Which specific types of management development and training programmes are needed by social work managers to improve their performance?*

Management development and training programmes specifically designed for social work is needed. However, the nature, emphasis and specific elements of these initiatives have not been explored. Future research needs to be directed at establishing the training and development needs of social work managers so that these initiatives are research based and more effective in improving managerial performance.

- (e) *To what extent do organizational factors such as structure and culture affect managerial functioning?*

This question is particularly crucial since the nature of social work organizations directly impacts upon the functioning of each participant including managers. However, the extent to which a bureaucratic organization, for example, influences, constrains or promotes specific managerial concerns such as the use of power, authority and participation has yet to be examined within social work organizations in South Africa. This focus of research will enable a better understanding of the organizational dynamics which affect managerial and worker functioning.

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APPENDIX I:

Letter to Organizations Requesting Participation in the Study

University of Cape Town
School of Social Work
Student Number: ISCNAD001

Nadia Isaacs
P.O. Box 22
Wittebome
7840
Tel. 706 3671 (h)

.....

The Director

Dear Sir/Madam

POST GRADUATE STUDY OF MANAGEMENT STYLES

I am a student with the School of Social Work, UCT, enrolled in a masters programme. The research with which I am engaged concerns the identification of management styles in the field of social work with the view to developing a framework specific to the South African context.

Yours is a registered Private Human Service Organization and since you meet the criteria for inclusion within the sample, I wish to request permission to conduct a survey amongst your professional staff members for the purposes of the research.

Should you agree to participate in the study, I will require a list of names of all your social work managers (including supervisors and directors) and a list of social workers in your employ. Whilst the survey is anonymous, the identification data is needed in order to ease direct contact with respondents. All other data will be obtained through the use of questionnaires which have been tested internationally. This information will be treated as confidential and in full accordance with the aims of the study.

Should you, however, agree to having the questionnaires group administered at your organization, this would be most preferable and will only require an hour at most. In addition, should you wish to have access to the results of your organization, this could also be arranged.

Please inform me whether you and your staff would be willing to participate in the study, and also whether you would be willing to set aside an hour for the group administration of the questionnaire.

Your co-operation will be much appreciated.

Thanking you.

Yours faithfully

NADIA ISAACS

APPENDIX II:

List of Organizations Participating/ Preferring not to Participate in the Study

ORGANIZATIONS PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY

Association for the Physically Disabled
Cape Peninsula Organization for the Aged
Christelike Maatskaplike Raad (only allowed one manager and one social worker to participate)
Child Welfare
Communicare
Deacon Services/Diakonale Dienste
Grassroots
Jewish Board of Guardians
National Cancer Association
Nicro Mitchells Plain
Nicro Tygerberg
SANCA
SHAWCO

ORGANIZATIONS WHICH PREFERRED NOT TO PARTICIPATE

ACVV
Cafda
Famsa
Nicro Cape Town
Safeline

APPENDIX III:

Letter accompanying Questionnaires Administered by Organization Internal Mail and Conventional Postage

University of Cape Town
School of Social Work

Nadia Isaacs
P.O. Box 22
Wittebome
7840
Tel. 706 3671

.....

The Social Worker/Manager

.....

Dear Colleague

POST GRADUATE STUDY OF MANAGEMENT STYLES

I am a student with the School of Social Work, UCT, enrolled in a masters programme. The research with which I am engaged concerns the identification of management styles in the field of social work with the view to developing a framework specific to the South African context.

The study includes the assessment of managerial style from the perspectives of managers and social workers. As a social work practitioner or manager employed by a registered Private Human Service Organization, you meet the criteria for inclusion within the sample. Should you agree to participate in the study, you are kindly requested to complete a short questionnaire, and an in-depth, internationally tested scale to assess managerial style, both of which are enclosed. The scale requires some thought as all options have to be rated. Your effort in this regard will be most appreciated. The results of the study will be available to all respondents upon completion of the final dissertation.

Please return both questionnaires to your head office, or to the above address sealed in the envelope provided as soon as possible. Individual responses will be treated as confidential and in full accordance with the aims of the study.

Thank you for your co-operation, energy and time invested in this study. Your efforts are most appreciated.

Yours faithfully

NADIA ISAACS
STUDENT NUMBER: ISCNAD001

APPENDIX IV:

Open-Ended Questionnaire

--	--	--	--

QUESTIONNAIRE:

MANAGEMENT STYLES

IDENTIFICATION DATA SHEET

Please complete this data sheet before answering the attached questionnaire and scale.

1. What position do you presently hold?

- ☐ social worker
- ☐ supervisor
- ☐ manager
- ☐ director
- ☐ other (please state):.....

2. Male or female?

- ☐ male
- ☐ female

3. In which age range are you?

- ☐ 20 - 30
- ☐ 31 - 40
- ☐ 41 - 50
- ☐ over 50

4. How long have you been employed in your present organization?

.....

5. How many years of practice experience do you have as:
- (a) a social worker
 - (b) a manager
 - (c) other (please state):
.....

6. What basic social work qualification do you have?

- ☐ 3-year university diploma
- ☐ 4-year university advanced diploma
- ☐ 4-year university degree
- ☐ other (please state):
.....

7. What additional qualifications do you have in social work?

- ☐ Honours degree
- ☐ Masters degree - Field of study:.....
.....
- ☐ Other advanced diploma:.....
- ☐ Doctoral degree - Field of study:.....
.....

8. Do you have a qualification in any other field? Please state briefly.

.....
.....

9. Are you presently engaged in any other studies/training? Please state briefly.

.....
.....

Below follows a few questions aimed at obtaining your general views on management:

1. How would you define management in general?

2. The way in which one manages determines one's management style. How would you describe the dominant managerial style in your organization?

3. In your opinion, how effective is this style in improving organizational functioning.

4. How ineffective do you think this style is?

5. How would you like to be managed?

6. Any additional comments:

Thank you for answering these questions.

The second and crucial part of this study is the completion of the accompanying scale.

Please read the instructions on the inner cover carefully as this is not a multiple choice questionnaire. ALL options have to be rated.

APPENDIX V:
Styles of Management Inventory (SMI)



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200 Main Avenue
Ferndale
Randburg, Transvaal
P.O. Box 756
Randburg, 2125
Republic of South Africa

Member and Sole Representative for Entire
African Region of:

Teleometrics International
Houston, Texas

STYLES OF MANAGEMENT INVENTORY

BY
JAY HALL, PH.D

TELEOMETRICS INTERNATIONAL

OUR PRODUCT IS ACHIEVEMENT

1755 WOODSTEAD COURT □ THE WOODLANDS, TEXAS □ 77380 □ (713) 367-0060

Styles of Management Inventory

Please Read Carefully: The purpose of this inventory is to provide you with information about the way you manage — or would manage — under a variety of conditions. A wide range of management situations is covered in order to provide you with meaningful information about yourself.

Instructions: This inventory contains a total of 60 management alternatives presented five at a time under each of twelve different situations. As you consider each situation, please read all five alternatives presented and select the alternative that is *most* characteristic of you. Enter the letter which represents that alternative on the scale at a point which indicates how characteristic that alternative is of what you would do or feel.

Next, select the alternative that is *least* characteristic of you and enter that letter at the appropriate place on the scale. Once letters representing what is *most* and *least* characteristic of you have been entered, place the remaining three letters on the scale according to how characteristic each of those is of you.

For example, you might answer as follows for a set of five alternatives:

Completely Characteristic : : b : : c : a : : d : : e : Completely Uncharacteristic
 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

On an inventory like this there are no right or wrong answers. Instead, the *best* response to each situation is to arrange the five alternatives in the way that is most representative of you. Remember that the purpose of this instrument is to provide you with data about yourself, so answer as you think you would do, not as you think you should.

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I. Concerning a philosophy of management: The opinions and attitudes held, and the assumptions a person makes, regarding the accomplishment of work through others are reflections of that individual's managerial "philosophy." This personal philosophy is not only an index of the way that person manages but the degree of success the individual is likely to achieve as a manager. Below are listed some areas of philosophic concern to managers.

A. Most managers recognize the fact that a variety of goals or needs — both individual and organizational — operate in the average work situation. In general, how do you view the relative importance of these?

- I feel that I can best insure a smooth running organization by first attending to the needs of my subordinates and providing the conditions for high morale.
- I feel that, while the needs of both subordinates and the organization are important considerations, in the final analysis the needs of the organization should prevail.
- I feel that the needs of the organization come first and that subordinates are obligated to sacrifice their personal goals, when necessary, in order to maintain a high quality of performance.
- I feel that the needs of both subordinates and the organization are equally important in determining the quality of organizational performance and that neither can be sacrificed if optimal results are to be obtained.
- I feel that the tasks of the organization are dictated primarily by organizational policy and that the individual employee — regardless of rank or needs — can do little to alter it significantly.

Completely Characteristic : : : : : : : : : : : : : : **Completely Uncharacteristic**

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

B. The manager's job is to accomplish work through people. What relationship between a supervisor and subordinates do you feel to be the most effective for accomplishing this?

- a. I feel that the best relationship is one in which the supervisor plans and directs the work of subordinates and the subordinates implement these plans and directions in a reasonable period of time.
- b. I feel that the best relationship is one in which the supervisor and subordinates work together as a team in meeting performance goals and individual needs for job satisfaction.
- c. I feel that the best relationship is one characterized by autonomy in the work situation and minimal contact between the supervisor and subordinates.
- d. I feel the best relationship is one in which both the supervisor and the subordinates are willing to "give a little and take a little" when necessary to get the job done.
- e. I feel that the best relationship is one in which the supervisor ultimately places emphasis on the morale and well-being of subordinates rather than on the requirements of the job.

Completely Characteristic : : : : : : : : : :' : **Completely Uncharacteristic**

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

C. Evaluation of departmental effectiveness is the manager's way of isolating areas needing improvement and of determining how well the total department has achieved its goals. The way in which evaluation is handled often affects both planning and implementation functions for attaining future objectives. How do you feel the evaluation function should be handled?

- a. I feel evaluation should be used to stimulate interest, develop high morale, and provide for individual growth within the organization and, therefore, I should encourage subordinates to make their own evaluations of the way in which the total department is functioning.
- b. I feel that evaluations should be treated as a shared responsibility and, therefore, my subordinates and I should meet together to critique, evaluate, and plan improvements in the functioning of our department.
- c. I feel that, on the basis of reports, comparisons with the performance of other similar departments and my knowledge of the various job requirements, I should personally evaluate the total department's performance and determine the areas in which improvements are needed.
- d. I feel that in order to place the responsibility for departmental effectiveness where it may best be used, I should pass on to my subordinates any evaluative comments and suggestions for improving the department made to me by "V.I.P.'s" from our own and other organizations.
- e. I feel that, after consulting with my subordinates individually, I should make an overall evaluation of the department and then meet with them in order to encourage improvement in the areas I have decided require it.

Completely Characteristic : : : : : : : : : : : **Completely Uncharacteristic**

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

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Productivity Development presents a variety of feedback instruments, books, readings, and audio-visual materials on:

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Productivity Development
(Pty) Ltd.
P.O. Box 756, Randburg 2125
Tel. 787-3349 or 787-2220, 789-4628, 789-5037

APPENDIX VI:
Management Appraisal Survey (MAS)

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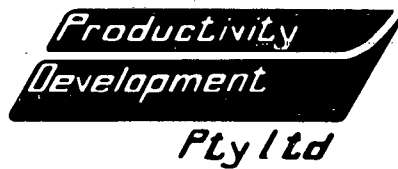
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Member and Sole Representative for Entire
African Region of:

Teleometrics International
Houston, Texas

A line graph illustration on the left side of the page. It consists of a series of vertical lines of varying heights, with a jagged line connecting the tops of these lines, showing an overall upward trend. The graph is drawn in black ink on a white background.

MANAGEMENT APPRAISAL SURVEY

BY

JAY HALL, PH.D.

JERRY B. HARVEY, PH.D.

MARTHA S. WILLIAMS, PH.D.

TELEOMETRICS INTERNATIONAL

OUR PRODUCT IS ACHIEVEMENT

1755 WOODSTEAD COURT □ THE WOODLANDS, TEXAS □ 77380 □ (713) 367-0060

Management Appraisal Survey

Please Read Carefully: The purpose of this survey is to obtain your assessment of the management practices of your manager. A wide range of management situations is covered within which that person's practices may be evaluated. Some of these situations will be familiar to you and others will be less familiar. In these latter cases, simply indicate what you believe your manager would be inclined to do if ever confronted with that particular set of circumstances.

The results of this survey will be used to provide your manager with meaningful information about his or her impact on others. For this reason, be as honest and objective as you can in responding to the survey items.

Instructions: This survey contains a total of 60 management alternatives presented five at a time under each of twelve different situations. As you consider each situation, please read all five alternatives presented and select the alternative that is *most* characteristic of your manager. Enter the letter which represents that alternative on the scale at a point which indicates how characteristic that alternative is of what your manager would do or feel.

Next, select the alternative that is *least* characteristic of your manager and enter that letter at the appropriate place on the scale. Once letters representing what is *most* and *least* characteristic of your manager have been entered, place the remaining three letters on the scale according to how characteristic each of those is of that person.

For example, you might answer as follows for a set of five alternatives:

Completely Characteristic : : b : : c : a : : d : : e : Completely Uncharacteristic

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

On an inventory like this there are no right or wrong answers. Instead, the *best* response to each situation is to arrange the five alternatives in the way that is most representative of your manager. Remember that the purpose of this instrument is to provide real data, so structure your answers so that they reflect what you think your manager would actually do or feel, not as you think he or she should.

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I. Concerning a philosophy of management: The opinions and attitudes held, and the assumptions a person makes, regarding the accomplishment of work through others are reflections of that individual's managerial "philosophy." This personal philosophy is not only an index of the way that person manages but the degree of success the individual is likely to achieve as a manager. Below are listed some areas of philosophic concern to managers.

A. Most managers recognize the fact that a variety of goals or needs – both individual and organizational – operate in the average work situation. In general, how do you think your manager views the relative importance of these needs? My manager feels that:

- a. One can best insure a smooth running organization by first attending to the needs of subordinates and providing the conditions for high morale.
- b. While the needs of both subordinates and the organization or agency are important considerations, in the final analysis the needs of the organization should prevail.
- c. The needs of the organization come first and subordinates are obligated to sacrifice their personal goals, when necessary, in order to maintain a high quality of performance.
- d. The needs of both subordinates and the organization are equally important in determining the quality of organizational performance and that neither can be sacrificed if optimal results are to be obtained.
- e. The tasks of the organization or agency are dictated primarily by organizational policy and that the individual employee or manager — regardless of rank or needs — can do little to alter it significantly.

Completely Characteristic : : : : : : : : : : : **Completely Uncharacteristic**

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

B. The manager's job is to accomplish work through people. In your opinion, what relationship between supervisors and subordinates would your manager feel to be the most effective for accomplishing this? My manager:

- Would feel that the best relationship is one in which the manager plans and directs the work of subordinates and the subordinates implement these plans and directions in a reasonable period of time.
- Would feel that the best relationship is one in which the manager and the subordinate work together as a team in meeting performance goals and individual needs for job satisfaction.
- Would feel that the best relationship is one characterized by autonomy in the work situation and minimal contact between the manager and subordinates.
- Would feel the best relationship is one in which both the manager and subordinates are willing to "give a little and take a little" when necessary to get the job done.
- Would feel that the best relationship is one in which the manager ultimately places emphasis on the morale and well-being of subordinates rather than on the requirements of the job.

[illegible]

C. Evaluation of departmental effectiveness is a manager's way of isolating areas needing improvement and of determining how well the total department has achieved its goals. The way in which evaluation is handled often affects both planning and implementation functions for attaining future objectives. How does your manager feel the evaluation function should be handled? My manager:

- a. Feels evaluation should be used to stimulate interest, develop high morale, and provide for individual growth within the organization and, therefore, encourages subordinates to make their own evaluations of the way in which the total department is functioning.
- b. Feels that evaluations should be treated as a shared responsibility and, therefore, the manager and subordinates meet together to critique, evaluate, and plan improvements in the functioning of our department.
- c. Feels that, on the basis of reports, comparisons with the performance of other similar departments and personal knowledge of the various job requirements, the manager should personally evaluate the total department's performance and determine the areas in which improvements are needed.
- d. Feels that in order to place the responsibility for evaluating departmental effectiveness where it may best be used, the manager should pass on to subordinates any evaluative comments and suggestions for improving the department made by "V.I.P.'s" from our own and other organizations.
- e. Feels that, after consulting with subordinates individually, the manager should make an overall evaluation of the department and then meet with them in order to encourage improvement in the areas he or she has decided require it.

Completely Characteristic : : : : : : : : : : Completely Uncharacteristic

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

II. Concerning planning and goal setting: The major goals and objectives of organizations are usually determined by Boards of Directors or the equivalent. Managers have the responsibility of planning the work necessary to achieve these larger objectives and, in addition, must often identify sub-goals which facilitate the attainment of these long-range organizational goals. Below are presented several examples of managerial activity related to the planning and goal-setting function. How do you think your manager would handle these?

A. Most types of internal activity stem from organizational goals. Once these goals have been identified, plans and policies must be drafted which facilitate goal attainment. How does your manager handle the planning function in your organization? My manager:

- After consulting with subordinates, interprets the requirements of organizational policy and develops the final plan.
- Plans, develops and interprets policy with the major objective in mind of keeping the morale of subordinates high.
- Jointly plans, develops, and interprets policies with subordinates in order to arrive at a common perception of the goals and ways of attaining them.
- Plans and/or interprets the objectives of the organization for subordinates so that they fully understand what management requires of them.
- Relies primarily on superiors for plans and interpretations of organizational policies and passes them on to subordinates as clearly as possible.

Completely Characteristic : : : : : : : : : : **Completely Uncharacteristic**

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

B. Many organizations recognize the existence of sub-goals – such as training, for example – which underlie attainment of overall organizational goals. What would your manager feel to be the goal of training, i.e., personnel development, in your organization? My manager:

- Feels that the goals of training should be based on the needs of the organization for competent, hard working and loyal employees.
- Feels that the policies of personnel development should be guided primarily by the needs for growth and job-satisfaction of individual employees in a given department.
- Feels that individual employees should be made aware of the goals of the organization and encouraged to get the kind of training they need.
- Feels that the organizational need for a high quality of performance and the employees' needs for individual growth and development should be jointly considered in establishing the goals of personnel development.
- Feels that personal development will take place automatically as a result of personal ambition and experience and that no specific training program other than "The Department Manual" is required.

Completely Characteristic : : : : : : : : : : : **Completely Uncharacteristic**

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

C. Depending on the size of the organization, individuals at various levels in the management ranks may have the additional responsibility of planning budget requests for their departments. Frequently, how money is to be spent is a more important determinant of budget approval than the amount requested. Assuming your manager had the responsibility for drafting a budget request, how would he or she — do you expect — discharge this responsibility? My manager:

- a. Would determine the amount of funds necessary to insure implementation of his or her plans for the department for the coming year, draft the budget accordingly — regardless of past budgeting policies — and “hand carry” it to the budgeting authorities in order to personally answer any questions they might have.
- b. Would compare last year’s budget request with the budget actually granted and draw up this year’s request in view of that. Any increases authorized by general policies would be added, and then it would be submitted through channels to the budgeting authorities.
- c. In order to accurately reflect the budgetary needs of lower level supervisors and employees, would contact each of them to determine their requirements and incorporate these into the final departmental budget request, adding a small percentage for unforeseen incidentals.
- d. Would have all whose activities are covered by the budget — including the budgeting authorities when possible — meet together to first review our departmental goals and then to draft a budget request based primarily on these goals.
- e. Would draw up a tentative request and test it with various lower level supervisors in order to identify potential areas of compromise before meeting with the budgeting authorities to draft the final request.

Completely Characteristic :

:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		

Completely Uncharacteristic

IV. Concerning performance evaluation: Managers may use evaluation to serve a number of purposes. Some evaluations provide information necessary for future planning. Others serve to allow a manager to appraise the skills of subordinates. The way in which evaluation data are collected and the uses to which they are put may vary from manager to manager. Some typical evaluation situations are presented below. How would your manager handle such situations?

A. One method of controlling both the productivity of subordinates and the quality of their work is performance evaluation. Aside from departmental forms, how does your manager evaluate the performance of employees? My manager:

- a. Periodically meets with subordinates individually and evaluates their performance for them, pointing out both strengths and weaknesses and spelling out the areas where a need for improvement is indicated.
- b. When conducting performance evaluations stresses the good qualities of subordinates' work and asks for suggestions of ways in which job conditions can be improved.
- c. Unless specifically required by policy or superiors, does not personally evaluate the performance of subordinates.
- d. Periodically meets with individual subordinates to inform them of management's evaluation of their performance and encourages them to ask clarifying questions in order to lay the groundwork for improvement.
- e. Meets with all the subordinates involved and together we all openly review each of our performances in working together to achieve both organizational and personal goals.

Completely Characteristic : : : : : : : : : : : **Completely Uncharacteristic**

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

B. While it is a rare occurrence for a subordinate's mistakes to be serious enough to affect a total organization, the manner in which mistakes are treated can significantly influence organizational health. How does your manager react when subordinates make mistakes on the job? My manager:

- On the basis of personal knowledge of the facts, disciplines those subordinates who make mistakes but in addition, also tries to show them how they can learn from their mistakes.
- When mistakes are made, also has those of us involved try to learn from them by analyzing their causes and by developing procedures which are designed to prevent similar mistakes in the future.
- In dealing with mistakes which occur, keeps the thought uppermost in mind that the self-confidence and morale of the employee involved must not be damaged.
- On the basis of a careful investigation of the facts surrounding the case, decides what disciplinary action should be taken.
- Because it is only natural for some mistakes to occur, tries to avoid emphasizing those which do happen unless they call the attention of superiors to the department.

[illegible]

C. Strong negative feelings toward other personnel frequently interfere with a person's ability to work with them effectively. How do you perceive your manager relating to a person at work when he or she experiences such feelings toward them? My manager:

- Lays it on the line and tells people what he or she thinks about them and what it is they are doing that is irritating.
- Tries to overcome feelings of hostility without letting others know of any personal upset and strives to become more tolerant of other people.
- Prefers to avoid contacts with those individuals, if at all possible but, if this is impossible, keeps the relationship on a "strictly business" level.
- Openly expresses feelings in a non-judgmental manner in order to clear up personal grievances among those concerned so that they do not interfere with work objectives.
- Checks with others to see if they share the same feelings, and if they do, tells the person how we feel.

[illegible]

Consider the Possibilities

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APPENDIX VII: Scoring Form

Step 1: In the spaces below, post the *scale value* number you selected for each of the five alternative letters under each situation. Letter designations for *the alternatives are not arranged in alphabetical order* on the form below, therefore, please be careful to place each number in its correct space.

Scoring Form

		①	②	③	④	⑤
I. Philosophy	A.	d. _____	b. _____	c. _____	a. _____	e. _____
	B.	b. _____	d. _____	a. _____	e. _____	c. _____
	C.	b. _____	e. _____	c. _____	a. _____	d. _____
	Subtotal	()	()	()	()	()
II. Planning and Goal Setting	A.	c. _____	a. _____	d. _____	b. _____	e. _____
	B.	d. _____	c. _____	a. _____	b. _____	e. _____
	C.	d. _____	e. _____	a. _____	c. _____	b. _____
	Subtotal	()	()	()	()	()
III. Implementation	A.	b. _____	a. _____	e. _____	c. _____	d. _____
	B.	c. _____	b. _____	a. _____	e. _____	d. _____
	C.	d. _____	c. _____	a. _____	e. _____	b. _____
	Subtotal	()	()	()	()	()
IV. Performance Evaluation	A.	e. _____	d. _____	a. _____	b. _____	c. _____
	B.	b. _____	a. _____	d. _____	c. _____	e. _____
	C.	d. _____	e. _____	a. _____	b. _____	c. _____
	Subtotal	()	()	()	()	()
TOTALS		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 40px; margin: 0 auto;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 40px; margin: 0 auto;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 40px; margin: 0 auto;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 40px; margin: 0 auto;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 40px; margin: 0 auto;"></div>
		①	②	③	④	⑤

Step 2: When all scale values have been entered, compute four subtotals in each column (①, ②, etc.) for each component of management (Philosophy, Goal Setting, etc.) First, total the three numbers you have entered under "①" to the right of "I. Philosophy." The sum of those three numbers is entered in the parentheses below them and slightly to their right labelled "Subtotal." Do the same for the three numbers under ②, those under ③ and so on. Repeat this step for Roman Numerals II through IV.

Step 3: When all subtotals have been entered, compute the "Totals" by adding the four subtotals in each column and posting their sum in the "Totals" box at the bottom of each column.

Step 4: When asked to do so, break the gold seal and turn this page out. Instructions will continue on the far right page.

APPENDIX VIII:

T-Table for the Styles of Management Inventory (SMI)

Raw Scores	T-SCORES					Raw Scores
	9/9	5/5	9/1	1/9	1/1	
12	13	17	19	18	22	12
13	13	17	19	19	25	13
14	13	18	19	19	28	14
15	13	18	19	19	29	15
16	13	18	20	19	30	16
17	14	19	20	19	31	17
18	16	19	20	19	33	18
19	16	19	20	19	35	19
20	16	20	21	19	35	20
21	16	20	21	19	36	21
22	16	20	21	20	37	22
23	17	20	21	21	39	23
24	17	20	21	22	40	24
25	17	20	22	22	41	25
26	18	20	23	23	42	26
27	19	20	24	23	43	27
28	19	20	24	23	44	28
29	19	20	24	24	45	29
30	19	20	26	25	46	30
31	19	20	26	25	47	31
32	19	20	27	26	48	32
33	19	20	27	26	49	33
34	19	20	28	28	49	34
35	19	21	28	28	50	35
36	20	22	29	29	51	36
37	20	22	30	30	52	37
38	21	23	30	31	52	38
39	21	23	31	31	53	39
40	21	24	31	32	54	40
41	21	25	32	32	55	41
42	21	25	32	33	56	42
43	21	26	33	34	56	43
44	22	26	35	35	57	44
45	22	27	35	36	58	45
46	23	27	35	36	59	46
47	24	28	35	37	60	47
48	25	29	36	37	60	48
49	25	30	37	38	61	49
50	26	31	38	39	62	50
51	27	31	39	40	62	51
52	27	32	39	40	63	52
53	28	33	40	41	63	53
54	28	34	40	42	64	54
55	28	35	41	42	65	55
56	29	35	42	43	66	56
57	30	36	43	44	66	57
58	31	37	44	44	67	58
59	31	38	44	45	68	59
60	32	38	45	46	68	60
61	33	39	45	46	69	61
62	33	41	46	47	69	62
63	33	42	46	48	70	63
64	34	43	47	49	70	64
65	34	43	49	49	71	65
66	35	44	49	50	72	66

Raw Scores	T-SCORES					Raw Scores
	9/9	5/5	9/1	1/9	1/1	
67	36	45	50	51	72	67
68	37	46	50	51	73	68
69	37	48	51	52	73	69
70	38	48	51	53	73	70
71	39	49	52	53	73	71
72	39	50	54	54	74	72
73	40	51	54	55	75	73
74	41	51	55	56	76	74
75	41	52	55	56	76	75
76	42	54	56	57	76	76
77	43	55	56	58	76	77
78	44	55	57	58	78	78
79	44	56	59	59	78	79
80	45	57	59	60	79	80
81	46	58	60	60	79	81
82	46	59	60	61	80	82
83	47	60	61	62	80	83
84	47	61	61	64	80	84
85	48	62	62	64	81	85
86	49	63	64	65	81	86
87	50	64	64	66	81	87
88	51	65	65	66	81	88
89	52	66	65	67	81	89
90	53	67	66	68	81	90
91	53	68	66	69	82	91
92	53	69	67	70	82	92
93	54	69	69	71	82	93
94	55	70	69	72	82	94
95	55	71	70	72	82	95
96	56	72	70	73	83	96
97	57	74	71	75	84	97
98	58	74	71	75	85	98
99	58	75	72	76	86	99
100	59	76	74	77	86	100
101	60	77	74	78	86	101
102	60	78	75	79	86	102
103	61	78	75	80	86	103
104	62	79	76	81	87	104
105	62	80	77	81	87	105
106	63	80	78	82	87	106
107	64	80	78	84	88	107
108	65	81	78	84	88	108
109	65	82	79	84	89	109
110	66	83	79	84	89	110
111	68	84	79	85	90	111
112	68	84	79	85	90	112
113	69	84	80	85	90	113
114	70	85	81	86	91	114
115	71	85	81	86	91	115
116	72	85	81	86	91	116
117	74	85	81	87	92	117
118	79	85	82	87	92	118
119	79	86	82	87	92	119
120	79	86	82	88	92	120

APPENDIX IX: T-Table for the Management Appraisal Survey (MAS)

Raw Scores	T-SCORES					Raw Scores
	9/9	5/5	9/1	1/9	1/1	
12	12	1	9	15	28	12
13	13	1	10	16	29	13
14	13	1	10	17	29	14
15	14	2	11	18	30	15
16	15	3	12	18	30	16
17	15	4	12	19	31	17
18	16	5	13	20	32	18
19	17	6	14	20	32	19
20	17	7	14	21	33	20
21	18	7	15	22	33	21
22	18	8	16	22	34	22
23	19	9	17	23	35	23
24	20	10	17	24	35	24
25	20	11	18	24	36	25
26	21	12	19	25	36	26
27	22	13	19	26	37	27
28	22	14	20	26	38	28
29	23	14	21	27	38	29
30	24	15	22	28	39	30
31	24	16	22	28	39	31
32	25	17	23	29	40	32
33	26	18	24	30	41	33
34	26	19	24	30	41	34
35	27	20	25	31	42	35
36	27	21	26	32	42	36
37	28	21	26	32	43	37
38	29	22	27	33	44	38
39	29	23	28	34	44	39
40	30	24	29	34	45	40
41	31	25	29	35	45	41
42	31	26	30	36	46	42
43	32	27	31	36	47	43
44	33	28	31	37	47	44
45	33	29	32	38	48	45
46	34	29	33	38	48	46
47	34	30	33	39	49	47
48	35	31	34	40	50	48
49	36	32	35	40	50	49
50	36	33	36	41	51	50
51	37	34	36	42	51	51
52	38	35	37	42	52	52
53	38	36	38	43	53	53
54	39	36	38	44	53	54
55	40	37	39	44	54	55
56	40	38	40	45	54	56
57	41	39	40	46	55	57
58	41	40	41	46	56	58
59	42	41	42	47	56	59
60	43	42	43	48	57	60
61	43	43	43	48	57	61
62	44	43	44	49	58	62
63	45	44	45	50	59	63
64	45	45	45	50	59	64
65	46	46	46	51	60	65
66	47	47	47	52	60	66

Raw Scores	T-SCORES					Raw Scores
	9/9	5/5	9/1	1/9	1/1	
67	47	48	47	52	61	67
68	48	49	48	53	62	68
69	48	50	49	54	62	69
70	49	50	50	54	63	70
71	50	51	50	55	63	71
72	50	52	51	56	64	72
73	51	53	52	56	65	73
74	52	54	52	57	65	74
75	52	55	53	58	66	75
76	53	56	54	58	66	76
77	54	57	54	59	67	77
78	54	57	55	60	68	78
79	55	58	56	60	68	79
80	55	59	57	61	69	80
81	56	60	57	62	69	81
82	57	61	58	62	70	82
83	57	62	59	63	71	83
84	58	63	59	64	71	84
85	59	64	60	64	72	85
86	59	64	61	65	72	86
87	60	65	61	66	73	87
88	61	66	62	66	74	88
89	61	67	63	67	74	89
90	62	68	64	68	75	90
91	62	69	64	68	75	91
92	63	70	65	69	76	92
93	64	71	66	70	77	93
94	64	71	66	70	77	94
95	65	72	67	71	78	95
96	66	73	68	72	78	96
97	66	74	69	72	79	97
98	67	75	69	73	80	98
99	68	76	70	74	80	99
100	68	77	71	74	81	100
101	69	78	71	75	81	101
102	70	79	72	76	82	102
103	70	79	73	76	83	103
104	71	80	73	77	83	104
105	71	81	74	78	84	105
106	72	82	75	78	84	106
107	73	83	76	79	85	107
108	73	84	76	80	85	108
109	74	85	77	80	86	109
110	75	86	78	81	87	110
111	68	75	86	78	81	111
112	76	87	79	82	88	112
113	77	88	80	83	88	113
114	77	89	80	84	89	114
115	78	90	81	85	90	115
116	78	91	82	85	90	116
117	79	92	83	86	91	117
118	80	93	83	87	91	118
119	80	93	84	88		119
120	81	94	85	89		120